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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THE rejection of the Roman Catholic Oath Bill by the House of Lords was no more than might have been, and was, in fact, anticipated. On questions of purely secular politics, the Upper Branch of the Legislature is not insensible to the teachings of common sense and the lessons of experience. But their sagacity utterly deserts them as soon as any one is timid or foolish enough to raise the cry of "the Church in danger." They cannot or will not distinguish between the real and the factitious supports of the Establishment either in England or Ireland. They refuse to recognise the obvious fact that both institutions do and must depend upon the public conviction of their usefulness, and that both are weakened and not strengthened by the exaction of oaths which create irritation without disarming opposition. As Lord Grey remarked, in the course of one of those vigorous and masculine speeches by which he relieves the platitudes of debate, no Bill for altering the Church established in Ireland can pass until there is so great a change of opinion in England and Scotland that the British Parliament will be prepared to consent to it. Whenever there is such a change, no Bill of the kind will be prevented from passing by an oath which might debar some conscientious Roman Catholic members from voting in its favour. Yet for the sake of maintaining this flimsy defence for the Irish Establishment, Lord Derby moved the House of Lords to reject a measure which is absolutely requisite in order to place Roman Catholics on that footing of political equality which they have a right to demand. It is indeed so obviously unjust to fetter the discretion of any particular section of the members returned to Parliament, while others are left free, that the noble Earl was compelled to base his opposition upon the idle figment of a settlement or compact made in 1829. But the world has moved on since then. Because the Roman Catholics of that day consented to bear a few links of their old chains, their successors of the present generation cannot be expected to endure patiently restrictions and insults which are imposed on no other class of their fellow subjects. They would indeed be more or less than men if they did not insist upon enjoying that unfettered legislative discretion which is possessed by Jews and Nonconformists. A cause so obviously just must triumph before many years pass over our heads. It may be thought that the exigencies of party-tactics have compelled the Earl of Derby to oppose the Roman Catholic Oath Bill against his better judgment. Mr. Disraeli evidently spoke and voted under such a stress. But the noble Earl is indeed no wiser than his followers. He shows to the fullest extent their apprehensions and their prejudices; and he made himself

the mouthpiece of their intolerance with a frankness and a heartiness which are not likely to be lost upon the Irish electors. The "Rupert of debate" never proved himself more worthy of his name than on Monday evening. He tore to tatters the ingenious network of sophistry by which the right honourable member for Bucks had endeavoured to prove that the Conservative party were actuated by feelings of the purest friendship in imposing upon the Roman Catholics distasteful and insulting declarations. He would not condescend to any mawkish sentimentality about an "ancient faith." The Roman Catholic is to him a "vicious animal" whom it is dangerous to "unmuzzle;" and he said so with an out-spokenness that is no doubt appreciated by the more politic, but less honest members of his party. If Lord Palmerston had dictated his rival's speech, he could hardly have put into his mouth one which would have better served the purposes of the existing administration in the forthcoming electoral struggle.

Signor Vegezzi has presented to Cardinal Antonelli the formal reply of the Italian Government, rejecting the conditions proposed by the Pope for the settlement of the question of the bishops. This result was anticipated when we wrote last week, and can surprise no one who has followed the course of the recent negotiations so far as they are known to us. There was some chance of success so long as the matter remained in the hands of the Pope and of the Italian Government. But when the Pontifical advisers intervened on the one side, and the susceptibility of the Italian people were excited on the other, it soon became evident that no accommodation was possible. Neither of these parties would leave in abeyance—or pass over in silence—the delicate question of the oath of allegiance to be taken by the bishops. The moment that point was raised the discussion was practically at an end, unless the Pope was prepared to recognise the kingdom of Italy in its unity and integrity. For, however willing General Della Marmora and his colleagues might have been to pass the subject over in silence they could not, without forfeiting the confidence of their fellow-countrymen, consent to stipulations which would allow prelates officiating in Italian sees to treat the sovereign as a usurper. Some faint hopes of an accommodation seem still to be entertained in some quarters. But we do not share them. The difficulty of coming to any arrangement must have been greatly increased by a discussion which has defined with inexorable clearness the relative position of the two parties. It is far easier to evade an issue than to deal with it when once it has been raised. It is no longer possible to conceal the fact that one side must yield to the other. And under these circumstances it is scarcely likely that anything will be effected until the progress of events shall convince one of the antagonists that it is useless to struggle any longer

against an inevitable fate. The Emperor Napoleon is once more master of the situation, and it is more than ever evident that upon the manner in which he interprets and carries out the Convention of September last depends the solution of every other Italian question.

The monotonous course of Prussian politics has just been diversified by an incident which would move our indignation if it did not excite our laughter. It seems that 58 Protestant clergymen of Pomerania have witnessed, with grief and horror, the disloyal and revolutionary efforts of the Chamber of Deputies to maintain the Constitution. In their eyes nothing is sacred but the Divine right of the King; and they are, therefore, naturally horrified by conduct which seems to strike at religion itself. It might, perhaps, be urged that, if that were their impression, they could hardly be too assiduous in offering up prayers for the misguided sinners. But, by some peculiar process of reasoning which we do not affect to understand, these clergymen have arrived at the profoundly irreligious conclusion that it is wrong to intercede for the wicked. They have, accordingly, informed his Majesty that they believe it to be their duty to give up praying for the Chamber of Deputies, in accordance with the obligations imposed upon them by law. And, although the King has not distinctly sanctioned so obvious a breach of civic duty and of Christian obligation, he has accepted, with every mark of satisfaction, this degrading offer of clerical servility. He has replied to the address with an unctuous solemnity which shows that he believes, or wishes others to believe, that it is a really important event. It is, indeed, not unlikely that he is sensibly comforted by this demonstration of the Pomeranian pastors. But we scarcely imagine that it will have much effect, even in Prussia; while beyond the frontiers of that kingdom it will only be accepted as a proof that a State-paid Protestant clergy can vie with Roman Catholic priests in abject devotion to an arbitrary monarch.

Some countenance is lent, by the recent change of Ministry, to the belief that Austria is about to adopt a more conciliatory policy towards Hungary. There seems no doubt that Herr von Schmerling, and the section of the Government with whom he acted, have retired from office. Now, although the late Minister of State was, so far as Austria is concerned, a friend and a steadfast adherent of constitutional government, he is by no means so liberal in regard to Hungary. He would, it is true, confer upon her free institutions, but then they must be of the kind which he chooses rather than those to which the Magyars cling. His cherished desire was to terminate the separate political existence of the various nationalities which compose the Austrian Empire, and to unite them all in one strong state, with a single parliament. That this is the direction in which the efforts of Austrian statesmen ought to tend we have no doubt; but it is equally clear that it is only very gradually that Hungary, Bohemia, Transylvania and other provinces, can be induced either to surrender their ancient diets or to acquiesce in their sinking to the level of mere provincial assemblies. It is necessary to disarm opposition by giving, in the first instance, the fullest form of local self-government, and confining the functions of the central Reichsrath to a few important and thoroughly imperial subjects. Von Schmerling's impatience to reach the goal prevented his pursuing the only course by which it could be attained. He would offer the Hungarians nothing but a share—although an ample and liberal share—in the constitution which he had been mainly instrumental in framing. For some years he has entirely failed to effect any *rapprochement* between the two nations by acting on this principle. But it may be hoped that in the course of his recent visit to Pesth the Emperor has resolved to try a policy more consonant with Magyar feeling, and more likely to be attended with success.

The recent change of Ministry in Spain is something more than a mere re-shuffling of the official cards. Marshal O'Donnell, who has once more regained power, is by far the ablest, the most honest, and the most liberal of Spanish statesmen. During his former Administration the country made great strides in material prosperity, and even gained strength in the practice of Constitutional freedom. The present programme of the Marshal is, so far as it goes, thoroughly good. He will inaugurate a Liberal foreign policy by recognising the kingdom of Italy; while at home he announces a general amnesty for offences against the Press Law, and promises an electoral law diminishing the qualifi-

cation for the suffrage, and establishing elections by provinces, according to the law of 1837. The restrictions imposed upon journalism will also be relaxed. It is to be hoped that the Marshal may be allowed to carry out his policy without hindrance from court or clerical intrigue. Spain only requires an able, liberal, and financially honest Government, in order to assume once more a prominent position in Europe. The new Ministry has said nothing as yet in reference to the payment of the foreign creditors of Spain. But it is scarcely possible that a man of O'Donnell's sagacity should be long in office without recognising the importance of opening to his country the money-markets of Europe.

Every mail from America brings us fresh proof of the irreconcilable antipathy of the whites for the blacks, and increases our sense of the difficulties which attend the reconstruction of "the model republic" on the basis of equality between the two races. At present it is evident that the unfortunate negroes have not ordinary security for life and limb. Only the other day a party of 200 soldiers attacked a settlement of the proscribed people in Washington, drove them from their houses, beat them, destroyed their furniture, and appropriated whatever of value could be found. Negroes are daily beaten for attempting to ride in the street-cars in Philadelphia and New York; and the President has been waited on by a deputation from Richmond, who have represented to him that all manner of cruelties have been practised upon them with the connivance of the Federal authorities, and that their condition as free-men is far worse than it was when they were slaves. We are not at all surprised to hear this, for we never believed that the Northerners would accept the negroes as men and brethren for a single hour after their services ceased to be required in the ranks. But it places in the strongest possible light the hypocrisy of the pretence that the war against the late Confederate States was a war against slavery; and, as we have already intimated, it opens a prospect of infinite embarrassment in the reconstruction of the Southern States. Whatever may be the nominal form of government established there, it will in mercy to both races be necessary to vest the real power in the hands of the military authorities. President Davis is still in confinement, but no steps have been taken to bring him to trial. It is said that this delay is owing to the desire of Mr. Johnson to give time for the subsidence of popular excitement, and thus to gain the power of acting upon his own more merciful instincts, in opposition to the bloodthirsty demands of the rabid abolitionists. We trust that this may turn out to be the case; for we have no desire to see the Northern States covered with such ignominy as would attend the infliction of any sort of punishment—much less of capital punishment—upon one who was lately at the head of a nation. It is only fair to add on this point that there seems no reason to believe that Mr. Johnson contemplates bringing either Lee or Longstreet to trial.

THE DISSOLUTION.

BEFORE the end of another week, Parliament will have expired. Like many another feeble invalid, it has first surprised us by the tenacity of its existence, and now startles us by the suddenness of the final break-up. The parallel, indeed, may be stretched a little farther; for, after the manner of always-ailing valetudinarians, Parliament leaves behind it some of the most pressing of its work undone. But a week more of life would have enabled it to pass all the measures for the employment of capital and industry which have this year come before it. Its end would then have been natural and decent, its conscience clear. But Lord Palmerston, as is meet, having filled the part of Tempter, now appears in that of Avenging Fate. It is he whose siren voice has, during six long years, led Parliament away from the line of duty to tread the primrose paths of dalliance. It is he who has told it that principle is impracticable, that Reform is out of the question, that pledges are made to be broken, and that if our material interests are prosperous, all is well. Listening to the duldest strains, our legislators have given themselves up to the pleasures of doing nothing that could possibly be put off. They have seen to the necessary business of the country, and to no more. At last comes the moment of reckoning. In the beginning of July they are sent to their constituents with a considerable portion of the necessary business of the session undone. What has been shuffled through has been managed only by suspending standing orders,

devised for the protection of private nights, at the rate of sixty a week. This, if fit, is hard. Our legislators' sole title to credit, that they pass every year the railway and gas and waterworks bills which the country requires, is taken from them. Who shall divine what motive urged the supreme arbiter of their destinies to this imperative haste? Was it impatience of the suspense, was it a sense that even a week forms a large span in the remainder of his political life, was it a vague idea that the more time people have to think over Ministerial policy the less they would like it? The early harvest is indeed alleged, and so is the check to speculation in the City. But what is the matter of a day's interruption in the commencement of harvest in the very earliest counties, or of a whole week of suspension of Stock-Exchange and Mincing-lane business, compared to the delaying for a whole year of works employing men by the hundred thousand, and adding materially to the wealth of the country? It is impossible to find a good public reason for this precipitancy, and it is equally impossible that a private reason can be a proper one.

The week has seen one event which has undoubtedly a strong significance on the result of the elections, and may have influenced the sudden haste of Government. Lord Derby has thrown the weight of his influence into the maintenance of the oppressive and insulting oath of which the Roman Catholics justly complain. It is difficult to see the motive for this policy. He has been for the last six years coquetting with the Irish Catholic party, and his overtures have not been without success. They naturally inclined to him because they objected to the Whig policy in reference to Italy, and because they were justly displeased with some parts of Lord Palmerston's personal policy at home. This inclination the Conservative leaders at least fostered. And it does not appear that they were at all forced to break off such tacit alliance because of the Catholic Oath Relief Bill. It certainly would have been possible for Lord Derby to preserve Protestant support without offending Catholic sensitiveness by so absolute and offensive a resistance. He has decided, however, otherwise. He has given the whole of that body to understand that, whatever may be his policy in Italy, he will be against them at home, even in matters where justice is scarcely denied to be on their side. At the same time, certain Whig concessions have done much to effect a reconciliation between that party and the Catholics. It is difficult to predict the ultimate result, but it certainly seems as if Lord Derby had on the eve of an election thrown an important chance in the game into his opponents' hands. And they may be desirous to profit by it at once, lest any new accident of policy should deprive them of its benefit.

For one reason or other, however, the decree has now gone out, and all we shall have to do till the returns begin to come in from which some positive augury can be drawn, will be to scan the slight circumstances which from time to time may indicate the tendency of public opinion. For the present week, little of this character has occurred. There are the usual meetings in town and country, at which everybody is confident and abusive and uncompromising. There are the usual crop of election addresses, which it is a duty to read in the hope of discovering something like a promise or a policy. But it cannot be denied that the task is a dreary one. That dead flat of "well-considered Reform" still appears in every utterance. Some sense, indeed, of the absurdity of the repetition seems to have crept into the minds of half a dozen of the candidates, and in the more recent effusions the phrase is altered into "well-digested Reform." Unhappily, if "good digestion wait on appetite," the prospect of a Reform of this character is remote, for the appetite of the candidates for any such measure is in the highest degree delicate and evanescent, not to say morbid. The probability is that we shall find them ready to eat their own words, to "eat dirt," to eat anything rather than to swallow Reform; and if it is forced down their throats, it will be subjected to prolonged rumination before they will admit that it is "well digested." The phrase is therefore a good one—it will serve the exigencies of the future as satisfactorily as "well considered," and we congratulate our future legislators on the richness of the language which supplies two different forms of speech, that combine such want of meaning with such pomp of diction and largeness of sound. Language, in the words of a great diplomatist, was invented to conceal our thoughts. But our British candidates have the merit of discovering a new stretch of its power, for with them it serves to conceal want of thought. It would, however, be wrong to class all these as having energy enough to be even obstructives. They are in great part merely men who have no mind of their own, and who have therefore a natural partiality for letting things alone. When the Liberal chiefs, whether under a new leader or in the cold shade of opposition, recover the capacity

to hold a definite opinion and to propose a definite measure,—a course to which they will be driven by the necessity of distinguishing themselves from their opponents, and of keeping the support of the section of genuine Liberals,—half of these unintelligible professors of well-considered Reform will be found voting on the Liberal side. The other half will, with equal certainty, be found voting on the Tory side, whether the Tory policy resolve into a new "lateral" Reform bill, or into resistance of everything in the name of Church and State. It is, therefore, only for the moment, and with no other purpose than to leave the future open, that these indefinite phrases float through the columns of the newspapers. If nobody else knows what they mean, the whips on both sides know perfectly, and, as the returns come in, they will tick off with unfailing accuracy the supporters of either party from among men whose addresses are like Enfield rifles, constructed on the principle of every part being interchangeable.

Whether the leaders, when they come to make their appeal to the constituencies, will be at all more explicit remains to be seen. Mr. Disraeli has already spoken, and our readers know with what sublime confusion of rhetoric. Sir H. Bulwer Lytton has also issued an address of elaborate artistic finish, but, except on the Malt-tax, of singular absence of idea. The Government members have not yet spoken. The address of chief interest during the week is that of the Right Honourable Robert Lowe. What this gentleman thinks is, indeed, of less consequence to his constituents than to anybody else. He sits for Calne, by pleasure of the Marquis of Lansdowne, and if that nobleman is pleased with his representative, nobody else can object. It is, perhaps, not very wonderful that, being on such pleasant terms with his patron, Mr. Lowe should declare himself very well satisfied with things as they are. He professedly measures institutions by their results, and the institution which gives him an easy seat for a pocket-borough is naturally, in his opinion, sanctified by its result. True, it has this disadvantage, that it endures only during Lord Lansdowne's pleasure; but none of us "see ourselves as others see us," and it is probable that Mr. Lowe is secretly of opinion that, if he has a strong point, it lies in his power of universally pleasing. But, apart from his personal merits, this gentleman must undoubtedly be looked upon as a party leader, and in this respect his address is a manifesto. It must be taken to embody the future policy of at least those thirty so-called Whigs who went with him into the division-lobby in the vote on the £6 Franchise Bill. And it cannot be denied that it sets forth that policy in very clear and unmistakable language. Of course it exhibits the usual deference to the possibility of an extension of the franchise such as would exactly meet the writer's views; but it contains a very distinct protest against "organic changes," and a positive reassertion of the doctrine that the main object of Government is to pass measures conducive to material prosperity "in a spirit of equity and impartiality to all classes of the community," and that the Government which does this best is the best possible Government. It is a strange doctrine for Englishmen in the nineteenth century to maintain. With the merit of being definite in principle, it has also the advantage of being cosmopolitan in application, for it will support indifferently the rule of Napoleon at Paris, of Alexander at Warsaw, and of Congress at Washington. Nobody, in any of these instances, can suggest a Government which could better maintain order and develop industry in the particular circumstances of the case. In this comprehensive class Mr. Lowe at present includes government by ten-pound householders in England. But, if he resists a change, he will at least be candid enough to acknowledge the advantages of a change when made; for as soon as six-pounders, or reading and writing men, pass a series of useful measures, Mr. Lowe will admit that they form the best possible Government. His then is, above all, a policy which accepts and petrifies the accomplished facts. The policy most fatal to national growth, the surest commencement and cause of national decline. Happily it is one which, in our present position, may please a cynic philosopher, with his strange following of sybarite disciples. But it is not one which England will accept, and Mr. Lowe's party will, when the elections are over, be swallowed up in one or other of the larger political divisions to which our history is accustomed.

THE EDUCATION FRANCHISE.

WE understand that a petition, which we cannot help regarding as one of great importance, is being extensively signed by the working classes of Bradford, from whose leaders it emanates. It commences by recognising the existence and

reasonableness of the feeling on the part of the present electoral body against universal suffrage, or the admission of the whole people to the right of voting, on the ground of their not being qualified by education for the proper performance of that duty. To meet this objection, the petitioners propose that an education franchise should be added to the existing property qualification, and that, whenever a man is proved by examination to be able to read fluently and to understand what he reads, to write correctly from dictation, and to be master of the first four rules of arithmetic, he shall be placed on the roll of voters. They therefore pray the House of Commons to give their assent to such an enactment, and they remark that, although by its means "only a small portion of the workmen of the country would be immediately placed upon the list of voters, your petitioners fully believe that it would be received by the working men in general with satisfaction; it would be regarded as an acknowledgment by Parliament of the right of the workmen to be represented as soon as they were proved to be fit by education; and it would also be an incentive to young men to spend their leisure time in study and self-culture instead of dissipation, in order to obtain a position which would give them a sort of honourable distinction amongst their companions." This is, we believe, the first time that the idea of an education franchise has been put prominently forward by any section of the working classes. It has been enunciated over and over again by thoughtful writers as the only possible solution of the difficulties which beset this question, and as the only safe and permanent barrier against the ultimate ascendancy of an overwhelming democracy. But the disinclination of Englishmen to accept any suggestions from those whom they do not choose to regard as "practical" men, has hitherto prevented its receiving the attention which it deserves. It has been thought sufficient to stigmatize it as impracticable, and to assert with dogmatic confidence that, although it was all very well in theory, it would never stand the wear and tear of work. Now, however, that the working men of one of the largest of our manufacturing towns have taken it under their protection, it may be thought worthy of some portion of the attention which has been so freely bestowed upon "fancy franchises" and schemes for the representation of minorities.

Looking at the matter for a moment as one of principle, it is plain that the educational test is the only one which meets directly the object with which all tests are avowedly applied to admission to the franchise. The property qualification at present in use is defended upon the ground that it does, in a rough and roundabout way, separate those who are fit from those who are not fit to be electors. A £10 householder has a vote, not because a residence of that annual value gives him a right to legislate for his fellow-citizens, but because it is believed that as a rule the class to which he belongs is tolerably intelligent, is moderately well informed, and is disposed to use its influence in a manner consistent with the well-being of the country. But everyone knows that there are thousands of £10 householders of whom this cannot be said with truth, while there are tens of thousands of persons who are not £10 householders of whom it may be said with perfect truth. A property qualification not only countenances the false and mischievous notion that men have a right to vote, not in respect of what they are, but of what they have; but it fails palpably to attain the end for which it is nominally maintained. Now it cannot be denied that an education test would furnish a real indication of a man's fitness to exercise political power. When you know that a man—especially amongst the lower orders—has acquired and kept up the power of reading, writing, and ciphering to the extent embraced in the Bradford programme, there is every ground for believing that he possesses industry, application, and self-denial; that he is peaceable and moral, and that he is in the habit of reading newspapers, and of paying a reasonable amount of attention to the topics of the day. How can it be contended that such a man is unfit to be entrusted with political power? Or, if it be so contended, it is clear that a very large portion of our present voters should be forthwith disfranchised, since nothing can be more certain than that they would not pass an examination of the kind suggested. It is perfectly true that a man may read, write, and know something of the rudiments of arithmetic, and yet be far from a capable politician. But it is confessedly impossible to confine the suffrage to capable men; and the real question is, not whether all the men selected by an education franchise are competent to fulfil the trust imposed upon them, but whether there is any other mode by which an equally good selection can be made from the ignorant and too often vicious mass who are partly within, but to a still greater extent without, the pale of the constitution.

We believe that an education test is not only theoretically the best that can be devised, but that it is the only one which can be permanently depended upon. Few persons seriously believe that it is possible to confine the franchise within its present narrow limits. But how is it to be extended? The middle classes are so fearful of being "swamped" that they will not support the most moderate proposal for a reduction of the present property or household qualification. On the other hand, the working classes are growing every day more and more averse to the idea of any property qualification at all. The only thing they can be got to care for is manhood suffrage. Every attempt to enlist their active sympathies in favour of a £6, a £5, or even a household franchise, has signally failed. The great bulk of the people are, no doubt, at the present moment profoundly apathetic on the Reform question; but it is neither probable that they will, nor desirable that they should, continue so. In the meantime, those amongst them who do take an interest in the subject are quietly biding their time until circumstances become favourable to an agitation for the most sweeping changes. To all but the most short-sighted politicians, it must be apparent that this state of things is full of danger. It threatens us, at a period which may be more or less remote, with a class movement of the most formidable character. The peril can only be averted by the laying down of some platform on which middle and working class reformers can act together in cordial concert. And such a platform may, we believe, be found in the education franchise. Working men would regard without jealousy the institution of a qualification which would exclude no one on account of his position in the social scale, or his poverty. They would be content to accept as a final settlement such an arrangement as would place it within the power of any one of their number to obtain the full rights of a citizen. The more intelligent and cultivated of their class would be the last to complain that a distinction was drawn between them and the least intelligent and the most worthless. On the other hand, the middle class would be relieved, not only from the just fear of being overwhelmed by "an ignorant mob," but from the less reasonable apprehension of a sudden disturbance of the political balance by the sudden addition of a large number of voters from a particular section of society. In a work just published by Mr. Boyd Kinnear, on "The Principles of Reform," the author, who is a warm advocate of the education franchise, has gone into some calculations upon the increase to the constituency which would probably follow the adoption of a test considerably less stringent than that laid down in the Bradford petition. He gives us good reason for believing that the number of persons likely to be admitted on merely proving their ability to read and write would be under a million. If a knowledge of the four first rules of arithmetic were insisted upon, we might safely deduct some 250,000 from that not very extravagant figure. An addition of three-quarters of a million of persons to the list of voters ought not to excite any alarm, when those persons have shown that they are able, willing, and desirous to inform themselves on political subjects, and that they set a sufficiently high value upon the franchise to undergo the trouble of examination. Nor must it be forgotten that this three-quarters of a million would be far from consisting wholly of the working classes. It would embrace all those members of the middle and upper classes whom Mr. Disraeli sought to reach by means of his "fancy franchise." No doubt, in time, a much larger portion of the working classes would be added to the electoral roll. But the process would be very gradual. The new voters would be silently and quietly assimilated to the old. There would be no sudden or violent change. As men became qualified to be electors, they would be admitted; the constitution would once for all be rendered self-adjusting to the wants of the nation.

The advantages of an education franchise are indeed so great and so obvious that we have no doubt it would command considerable support if the public mind were once disabused of a vague impression that what is new and untried must be "impracticable." For our own part, we confess our inability to see any peculiar difficulty in the process of examination. It might ultimately be found desirable to abolish all other franchises, but at first the education qualification should not supersede those now in existence. In that case, we may be quite certain that none would go up for examination who could claim the vote without passing through such an ordeal. Those who required and were able to pass would in all probability only present themselves gradually. The notion that every man who could read and write would make a sudden rush at the examiners the moment the bill was passed is per-

fectly absurd. But, except from the pressure of an overwhelming mass of would-be electors, all clamouring to be heard or seen to read, write, and cipher at the same time, there is really no difficulty about an examination. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge annually examine some hundreds of persons in different parts of the country in a great number of subjects. It would surely be quite as easy, with an adequate staff, to test the ability of a few thousands in the simple arts of reading and writing. In the appendix to the work we have already referred to, Mr. Kinnear has inserted the draft of a bill for establishing and carrying out a scheme of examination. It provides for the division of the country into districts by the Committee of Council on Education, who would be charged with the execution of the act; and for the appointment by the same body of one or more examiners to each district:—"Within his district, each examiner is, once a year, to hold an examination in every fitting place in a county and in every borough. Thus, in a year each examiner will go over a very large district. Probably after the first year, ten or twelve examiners will be found sufficient for the whole of England. The applicants are to send notice of the place where they wish to be examined, and the examiner is thus enabled to fix the days of examination at each place and to give ample notice of them. To prevent favour or partiality, the agents of the political parties are to be present at the examination; if they are not, at least three other persons must be present." For the further details of Mr. Kinnear's plan, we must refer our readers to that gentleman's very able work. They are no doubt susceptible of amendment, but in the main they seem very happily adapted to the end in view. Being perfectly free from complication; we cannot discover any reason why machinery of so simple a character should break down in working.

THE LORD CHANCELLOR.

LORD WESTBURY is one of the most fortunate and unfortunate of men. Twice within two months has he been on his trial for an abuse of office; twice have his judges exonerated him, but on neither occasion has the public sentiment endorsed their judgment. In the Edmunds scandal they found themselves "unable to coincide with the Lord Chancellor in the view taken by him of his public duty," in presenting to the House of Lords the petition of a man who had for years been embezzling the public money without a word of reference to that fact, thus enabling Mr. Edmunds to retire from his office in the Upper House upon a pension of £800 a year. People who call a spade a spade spoke of this act in stronger language. They said, and truly, that it was a dereliction of duty incompatible with his position, and the credit of the Government of which he was a member. That the highest legal dignitary in the land should screen so gross an offender, nay, should, by concealing his trespasses, aid him in deceiving the House of Lords, was conduct against which the instincts of all candid and straightforward men revolted. And the House confirmed the general opinion. Its committee could not "coincide" with Lord Westbury's view of his public duty. But the House felt on reflection that this rebuke was but a poor satisfaction for the offence of which he had been guilty. It had granted Mr. Edmunds a pension upon a misrepresentation in which the Lord Chancellor, by a suppression of facts, had shared. It was due to its own honour that the grant should be rescinded. And it was rescinded. Thus, Lord Westbury stood condemned by public opinion, and by the Lords whose chairman he is, and whose committee had judged him so leniently.

But the last state of that man is worse than the first. To the Edmunds scandal, succeeded the Leeds scandal. Here again we find him pensioning a person whom he himself calls "a bad public officer." This time, however, the act of pensioning is not performed vicariously; it is his own direct and deliberate performance. Mr. Wilde was, up to the 30th of June, 1864, one of the registrars of the Leeds Court of Bankruptcy. Some weeks before that date, three charges were brought against him destructive of his character as a public servant. He was accused, first, of having certified accounts as allowed by Commissioner Ayrton, which had never been submitted to that gentleman, by which falsehood upon his part large sums had been improperly allowed to the official assignees; secondly, of having been in the habit of taxing the bills of the messengers, without calling for the vouchers for the sums alleged to have been paid by them; thirdly, of having borrowed money both from the official assignees and messengers of the Court, thus destroying his independence and efficiency. Whatever doubt Mr. Wilde might be able to throw upon the truth of these

allegations, it is certain that, with his explanation, and with the reports of Commissioner Ayrton and Mr. Harding before him, the Lord Chancellor considered the case against Mr. Wilde to be so bad that he directed Mr. Miller, the Chief Registrar, and who acted as his lordship's Secretary in Bankruptcy, to write to him, that unless "in the course of post" he intimated his intention to apply for leave to resign, he would be served with notice to appear before the Lord Chancellor in open court, and show cause why he should not be dismissed. It is pleasing to observe in Mr. Miller's letter an instance of the influence which an amiable man will exercise on his subordinates. All the world knows the mild and gentle character of the Lord Chancellor. Indeed, it was his only defence in the case of Mr. Edmunds, for helping that embezzler to his pension. He erred, excellent man, on the side of amiability. So, in the case of Mr. Wilde, the threat of dismissal, in default of resignation, was followed up—as in the former case—with an intimation that the painful alternative of resignation would not be unaccompanied with a pecuniary solace. "It is said," wrote Mr. Miller, "that your state of health is such that you can have no difficulty in obtaining such a medical certificate as would entitle you to retire, under the 33rd section of the Bankruptcy Act, 1861." It is true that the Lord Chancellor denies that Mr. Miller had any authority from him to suggest retirement with a pension: "Mr. Miller had no instruction from me to do anything but to give him notice to appear; but it is undoubtedly possible that I may have said to Mr. Miller that I would accept his resignation, meaning resignation without any pension." On this point Lord Westbury and his secretary are at issue. But as we shall see, this matters very little. Mr. Wilde was prompt to take Mr. Miller's hint, especially as the obliging secretary had drawn up his petition for him, and on the 30th of June the petition, affidavit, and medical certificate were laid before the Lord Chancellor. Here, again, Lord Westbury and his secretary contradict each other. Mr. Miller says that he called the attention of the Lord Chancellor to the unsatisfactory nature of the certificate, and that the Lord Chancellor said that, coupling the language of the petition, the affidavit, and the certificate together, there was a sufficient case to enable him to make the order. The Lord Chancellor "cannot remember" his attention being called to the certificate. He says, "The petition, affidavit, and certificate were presented to me, and I ought in strictness to have read them all. I certainly could not have read the medical certificate, or I should not have allowed it (the pension) to have passed upon that certificate." Which are we to believe? It is true that Mr. Miller does not, in the report of the Committee, appear conspicuous for veracity. There is strong reason to believe that he has manufactured a record of a letter which was never written by him; he is contradicted upon several points by different witnesses; nay, he himself, after denying to the Committee that he had anything to do with Mr. Wilde's petition, admitted that he had prepared it. On the other hand, we know from the Edmunds' case that Lord Westbury is not very scrupulous about the characters of persons whose petitions for a pension he promotes. But if we accept his own statement of the facts, if we suppose that he acted towards himself as he acted towards the House of Lords, and concealed from himself the weakness of Mr. Wilde's claim by not looking at the medical certificate on which it was grounded, how is such conduct to be palliated? To speak of it, as the Committee do, as blameable only because of its "haste and want of caution," is ridiculous. At this very time Lord Westbury had reason to believe that in many of the Bankruptcy Courts the grossest abuses were practised. In Mr. Wilde he had one of the offenders before him. "I thought him a bad public officer, and thought it would be a gain to the public if he were permitted to resign." But the terms of the proposed resignation were, on the 30th of June, very different from those of the 26th, when Mr. Miller wrote to Mr. Wilde suggesting resignation. On the latter date, Lord Westbury says it was to be without a pension. When he was asked to consent to terms so very different from those he had intended, was it nothing worse than "haste and want of caution" to leave unread a document of half a dozen lines which, short as it was, was the only fact in Mr. Wilde's case which could excuse the pensioning of a bad public officer? But why was he a bad public officer? He had passed accounts without asking for vouchers. He had allowed others, certifying that they had been submitted to his Commissioner, and sanctioned, when they had not. These are the main charges against him. But was Lord Westbury's conduct, on his own showing, much better? Mr. Wilde was trustee to his court; Lord Westbury was trustee to the public. Mr. Wilde allowed money to be paid which

ought not to have been paid, and certified to a fact which was false. Lord Westbury granted a pension to a bad public officer which he admits he ought not to have granted, and by granting it made a profession of having read the certificate, which was its only possible justification. He abused his office, to say the very least, by a gross abandonment of duty. The certificate was lying before him. He could have read it and satisfied himself of its worthlessness in a minute. If the highest judge in the realm bestows away public money in this reckless fashion, what fidelity to their trust can we expect from the Registrars of a provincial Court of Bankruptcy?

On the same day on which Mr. Wilde was pensioned, Mr. Welch was appointed to the vacant registrarship. He had previously, in the year 1862, applied to the Lord Chancellor for a legal appointment. In 1863 he had been mentioned to the Lord Chancellor by the Hon. Richard Augustus Bethell as a friend whom Mr. Bethell wished to be remembered. In 1864, on the 16th of April, he wrote to Lord Westbury pressing his former requests; and about the middle of May sent to his lordship several letters of recommendation from the late Sir William Atherton and other leading counsel of the Northern Circuit. While he was thus addressing the father, he was negotiating with the son—or more properly the son was negotiating with him—about the raising of a sum of £6,000. But pending these negotiations, Mr. Richard Bethell found himself in immediate want of £500; and it is beyond all doubt that Mr. Welch lent him this sum—lending to the Hon. Mr. Bethell being the same thing as giving—and that he borrowed it on the distinct condition that he should use his influence with his father to obtain Mr. Welch an appointment. The Rev. George Rogers Harding, Vicar of St. Ann's, Wands-worth, who acted at least on one occasion as go-between to this precious pair, states that an arrangement had been made between them that Mr. Bethell should use his influence to procure an appointment from his father in favour of Mr. Welch; that Mr. Welch should pay £500 down, and, on obtaining an appointment, should pay £1,000 more. He says that upon his taking a letter of introduction from Mr. Bethell to Mr. Welch either at the end of April or the beginning of May (Mr. Welch's cheque for the £500 was dated May 6), Mr. Welch acknowledged that that was the arrangement; and that the understanding was clear. The £500 was to be paid to Mr. Bethell on the security of his bill at short date, which was to be destroyed or returned if Welch got the appointment, and Harding was to have a third of the £1,000 when paid—for what consideration does not appear. Mr. Bethell and Mr. Welch deny that there was any such agreement, but Mr. Welch admits that he lent the money with the hope that Mr. Bethell would exercise influence with his father in obtaining an appointment for him; and Mr. Bethell says that he may have told Welch that if he saw there was any reasonable chance of succeeding he would mention his name to the Lord Chancellor.

It is certainly a striking coincidence that, while these negotiations were on foot between Mr. Bethell and Mr. Welch, Mr. Miller was pressing Mr. Wilde with charges of misconduct, and that much about the time when Mr. Bethell was obliged to fly from the country Miller wrote to Wilde the letter of the 16th of May, in which the accusations against him were detailed. Mr. Harding says that, after Mr. Bethell's flight, he accidentally met Welch, who expressed his fear that he had lost his money. Was Mr. Miller, the intimate friend of the Hon. Richard Bethell, indeed of all the Bethells, anxious lest Welch should expose the hon. fugitive? Lord Westbury says, that on the same day that he pensioned Wilde he appointed Welch, because he was informed by Mr. Miller—though why he was a better authority upon this point than his lordship, we are not told—that the vacant registrarship ought to be filled up without delay. Mr. Miller had not only done his best to show Mr. Wilde that he must either resign or be dismissed, but he had indirectly assured him that he would be allowed to resign with a pension. He had suggested the plea of ill-health, which had not occurred to the invalid himself, and had drawn up his petition for him. What could induce Mr. Miller to be so anxious to get rid of Mr. Wilde quietly? That he was deeply interested in the prosperity of the Hon. Richard Bethell is certain. When Mr. Slingsby Bethell gave up his registrarship in bankruptcy to fill the office of Reading Clerk to the House of Lords, vacated by Mr. Edmunds, Mr. Miller urged the Lord Chancellor to give the former office to his eldest son, and even prepared, without authority, an order making the appointment. In his zeal for this excellent person, who had been dismissed from his registrarship by a father not wholly indisposed to promote the interests of his sons and relatives, he prepared at a later date, again without

authority, two orders of appointment, one of Mr. Welch to the London Registrarship, the other of Mr. Bethell, to that at Leeds. Lord Westbury, urged by Mr. Skirrow, an intimate friend and a trustee of Mr. Bethell's marriage settlement, had consented to take into his consideration the appointment of his son to some office in the country. Bristol was suggested as being in the neighbourhood of Mrs. Bethell's relatives; but Mr. Bethell had a friend dearer to him than his wife's family. On the 22nd of February last Lord Westbury held out a hope that he would consider the matter. Later in the same day Mr. Bethell called on Mr. Skirrow and heard the good news, upon which he introduced his tried friend, Mr. Welch, and some remarks passed which show that Mr. Bethell expected to obtain the office at Leeds and that Mr. Welch hoped to be transferred to London. On the day following Mr. Bethell went to Leeds, saw Mr. Welch at his office on the 24th, and it was then generally understood in the Leeds Bankruptcy Court that Mr. Welch was to be transferred elsewhere and that Mr. Bethell was to be registrar in his place. But not without a consideration. In the previous September Welch had lent him £200 in addition to the £500 lent in May; on the 7th of February last £50 more; and on the 20th £300. But on the 26th, whether, as the Lord Chancellor states, because of information he had received as to his son's conduct in Paris, or, as Mr. Longfield, M.P., has suggested, because about that time ominous whisperings were getting abroad about the Edmunds scandal, the paternal heart, which had shown symptoms of thawing, suddenly froze up. He decided not to give his son any office, and zealous Mr. Miller, with the two appointments in his drawer ready for the Lord Chancellor to sign, upon a hint from Mr. Skirrow destroyed them.

There is nothing in the report of the committee to show that the Lord Chancellor or Mr. Miller was cognizant of Mr. Bethell's dealings with Mr. Welch. But we cannot help seeing that Lord Westbury, of course from an excess of amiability, is indulgent to an unpardonable degree in his treatment of "bad public officers," and that Mr. Miller, also from an excess of amiability, limited apparently to the family of his chief, is a most unsafe guardian of the public interests, wherever the interests of a Bethell crop up in his path of duty. The minutes of evidence taken before the committee show us what sort of man, in his father's opinion, the Hon. Richard Bethell was. In Lord Westbury's letter to Mr. Miller, dated May 14, 1864, insisting on his son's removal from office, he writes that he "has been guilty of the most flagrant misconduct;" that he has "lost, during the last twelvemonth, very large sums of money by betting at races;" that he "has raised money to pay these debts by bills of exchange, and loans in every quarter;" that "he is stated to have been for some time in the habit of neglecting personal attendance at his office, and to have had his official duties discharged by deputy." In a subsequent letter to Mr. Skirrow, he writes, that if his son's "wife and six little children, affection for his father and brothers and sisters, and regard for his own character and position, have not been sufficient to keep him from plunging a fourth time [the italics are Lord Westbury's] into these mad and evil courses, nothing will." Yet, upon condition that Mr. Richard Bethell could obtain a release from his creditors, the Lord Chancellor was not indisposed to quarter once more upon the public a son whom he had dismissed from his registrarship for the "most flagrant misconduct," and a neglect of the duties of his office. How anxious was Mr. Miller to kill the fatted calf for the prodigal, at the public expense, we have seen. How confidently Mr. Welch subsidised the prodigal in the hope of obtaining an appointment through his influence, we have also seen, together with the justification of his confidence. Whether he will be able to retain the office he bargained for with Mr. Bethell is another matter. He got it, and that within a few weeks of the payment which he made for it. This may have been only a coincidence; but it is certainly most unfortunate for the Lord Chancellor and the Chief Registrar in Bankruptcy that they should unconsciously have given effect to an iniquitous compact by instantly filling up a vacancy for which Mr. Bethell's friend was not the only candidate.

PAVING, LIGHTING, AND CLEANSING OF THE METROPOLIS.

SIR WILLIAM FRASER's picture of what local self-government has done for the metropolis did not greatly commend that cherished principle in the eyes of Londoners. Yet some of the local bodies have taken the alarm. The vestry—or

"Representative Council," as it prefers to be styled—of St. Pancras, have already taken action. They determined last week to protest against any interference with the duties of vestries in the metropolis in regard to paving, cleansing, sewerage, and lighting. The St. Pancras vestry see in recent proceedings of the House of Commons a dark and deliberate attempt to destroy local management, and set up the principle of centralization. There are, it seems, certain "centralizing members of the Government" who are watching their opportunity, and at their head is a "centralizing Secretary of State," who caught at Sir W. Fraser's speech "with the greatest avidity," and treacherously admitted all the evils charged upon the neglect and mal-administration of the parochial authorities.

There are one or two metropolitan boroughs which find the representative machinery of the vestries a useful adjunct in parliamentary elections. These vestrymen cannot contemplate without alarm the extinction of their self-importance, and the possible diminution of their influence in the elections for Marylebone. The principle of local self-government is a good one in the main, but it may be ridden to death. It has been tried for ten years in the metropolis, and not a single member of Parliament has a word to say in defence of the results. The streets are for the most part ill-paved and ill-kept. There is no uniformity of administration. One parish uses granite to mend its roads—another soft flint rubbish. The roads of the suburban metropolitan parishes are shamefully neglected. The lighting is usually no better than the paving. The Gas Act is a failure, and the gas supplied to the public lamps is of the very worst description. The crown of the road is inartistically made; the kennels are unscientifically constructed. The water refuses to run in many of the gutters, except when inundated by some great fall of rain. Last winter, when we had alternate falls of rain and snow, the streets were to be seen covered with slush and mire, which was ankle deep on the footways. During last month, when dry weather prevailed, the condition of the streets, owing to the dust, has been almost intolerable. This dust, according to the opinion of medical men, is highly injurious to the lungs. It has been proved that if an ounce of it is mixed with a certain quantity of water, a quantity of animalculæ come into existence, so that everybody who imbibes the dust takes into his system so much noxious matter. Our housemaids and other female servants deserve some consideration apart from the injury to furniture, carpets, and hangings, and the additional expense of laundresses. The enormous amount of labour to which servants are subjected in trying to keep away the dust should never be lost sight of. Would it not be better to remove it from the streets than to give the female domestics the trouble they have, morning, noon, and night, to remove it from the furniture?

Our readers will remember that, almost alone in the metropolitan press, we have protested against the barbarous system of throwing down broken metal to be made into an even road by the traffic of horses and vehicles. England, the nursing mother of mechanical science, is half a century behind France in this matter. Our London streets are repaired by throwing down broken granite stone, and instead of using rollers, as in Paris, to make an even surface, the local authorities allow horses to do the work at the risk of being lamed, to the inconvenience of the drivers and the loss of the owners. As soon as fresh metal is laid down in Paris a cart immediately follows with sand and fine gravel. Behind this comes a water-cart and a heavy roller, so that in two or three days the street is perfectly fit for use, while in London it is sometimes three, four, or five months before the surface of the road is restored and it is fit for a carriage to drive over it. The system of watering in the two cities exhibits the same striking contrast. In London the custom is to deluge the streets with a great flood of water at one period of the day, so as to leave the thoroughfares covered with mud. Charing-cross, below the statue of King Charles, is, for some hours after the water-carts have been at work, a pond of water and a sea of liquid mud. The London thoroughfares are alternately covered with mud and filled with clouds of dust. In Paris the water-carts are about all day long, the practice being to keep pouring small quantities of water upon the streets, just enough to lay the dust, but watering so gently that the boots are scarcely soiled in crossing the street after the water-cart.

Everyone but a vestryman sees that what is wanted is a more efficient superintendence and greater uniformity of administration, and not a larger outlay of money. Formerly the management of the highways in the country districts was left to the parochial authorities. In 1862 the Highways Act

formed several parishes into districts, and placed the management of the roads under a county surveyor and a Board of Superintendence. Such a consolidation would be a great advantage to the metropolis; and the question is, whether a Highway Board ready to our hands cannot be found in the Metropolitan Board of Works? A bill to transfer to that Board the paving, cleansing, and lighting of the metropolis would bring a higher class of talent to the service of the ratepayers. The road-surveyors of the metropolitan parishes are not seldom ill-educated men, who are appointed by local influence and favouritism. Sometimes they do not know how to make a good road. In other cases they are overruled by ignorant and cheeseparing road committees in the several vestries, who prescribe the kind of metal to be laid down, and lose sight of the question of durability in the apparent cheapness of the material. The money now muddled away by these ill-educated surveyors and ignorant road-committees would amply suffice to do the work efficiently and well.

A consolidated Highway Board for the whole of the metropolis would employ a thoroughly competent surveyor-in-chief. In Scotland and in the districts formed in England under the Highway Act it is found that a chief surveyor, thoroughly acquainted with the theory and practice of road-making, and assisted by an efficient staff, is able to superintend very large and populous areas. A consolidation of highway management would bring to the work of road-making greater scientific skill than parishes are now able to obtain and employ. We might then see an organized and systematic attempt to make the roads even and perfect by the use of heavy rollers. We should then hope to see the crown of the road scientifically made. Due care would be taken that the metal employed should be of the requisite durability, and above all that it should be of about half the present size, so that it should the sooner bind into an even surface. At present our roads are not only carelessly and ill made, they are most unwisely neglected. They should be narrowly watched, uneven places should be instantly repaired, and the mud—the great enemy to durability—should be constantly scraped off and removed.

We know that if any attempt were made to take the paving, lighting, and cleansing of the metropolis out of the hands of our self-elected and jobbing vestries, we should hear the St. Pancras howl in favour of local self-government and the danger of centralization. But we see what the principle of local self-government has done for us in the metropolis. Gentlemen will take no part in parochial affairs, and the vestries are for the most part filled by tradesmen who have their eye upon a lucrative parish job, and by the owners of small tenements who compound for their poor-rates, and contrive to shift no small portion of their parochial burdens upon the shoulders of the ratepayers at large. In the cities and boroughs of the empire the leading inhabitants are not ashamed to serve the community as mayors, aldermen, and town councillors, but in the metropolis the corresponding municipal offices are hawked about in vain. The reason is that the country towns have a local press. The publicity given to the proceedings of their corporate bodies makes the distinction of an alderman or town councillor one to be coveted. London has no local press worthy of the term. If it had—if every parish had a respectable local journal universally circulated within the district, and conducted by writers as able and well informed as the editors of country newspapers—an enlightened public opinion would grow up, and a better class of men would offer themselves to discharge the important functions vested in the parochial boards of the metropolis. The Metropolitan Board of Works execute their duties more satisfactorily than the vestries—first, because the latter send their best men to represent them at the central board; and secondly, because the proceedings of the former are sufficiently important to attract the attention of the leading daily and other journals. The Metropolitan Board live in an atmosphere of public opinion. Their actions are watched and scrutinized by the public; while the ratepayers of the several parishes know nothing of what passes in the vestries, and have no means of intercommunication when they detect a wrong or desire to check an incipient job.

THE EAST AND WEST ENDS.

If modern Babylon has its head of gold, it has also its feet of clay; if the one is seen towering superbly among the trees of St. James's Park, the towers of Westminster, and the squares of Belgravia, the others may be tracked amid mire and filth through the noisome lanes and crowded courts of Whitechapel. But what does Belgravia or Pall-mall know of

Whitechapel and the Docks? It has never even seen them, except when whisked along as by magic above the level of their narrow streets, or when sailing gaily and swiftly through a forest of masts on the Thames. "Paris I know, and Brussels I know, but who are ye?" Such is its language. It is familiar with the lakes of Cumberland, the Highlands, the Drachenfels, and the Tiber winding through its marble wilderness. Not to be familiar with these would be a disgrace indeed; but what has the West-end of London in common with the East, with the rookeries, and the homes of the great unwashed? What are the masses in Shoreditch to the *élite* of Belgrave-square? "Let the people eat grass," said old Foulon during the scarcity of '89; and many a West-end matron, who will not adventure to set the sole of her foot on the pavement for delicateness, would, if you talked to her of destitution in the East, feel little more concern than Foulon for the diet of its poor. No one is eligible to the Travellers' Club who has not "travelled out of the British islands to a distance of at least 500 miles from London in a direct line," but are any of those gentlemen required to have journeyed as far as Bethnal-green and the Isle of Dogs? How many of the existing members would be found qualified for the club if it were clogged with such conditions? No: practically the head of gold says the feet of clay are not of the body; but are they, therefore, not of the body? If these members suffer, will not all the members suffer with them? If the feet of clay become unsteady or inert, if they dance in mad freak, stamp with wild fury and kick, or frisk fearlessly along the brink of political and social precipices, will not the great image also begin to reel, and the golden glories of the head be abased? A nation has ere now gone mad, as Bishop Butler predicted that it might. Let the West-end look well to it, lest dog-days come, in which the East-end shall be bitten; remembering what no mean seer has told us, that "the earth itself is but a larger kind of doghutch—occasionally going rabid."

If the home-traveller, who has reached the broad roadway extending from the Minories to Whitechapel Church, will turn aside from its numerous public-houses and butchers'-shops, and pierce the narrow openings which issue from it on either side, he will soon discover how much the East-end has need of the West, and how much the West-end has to fear from the East. Where formerly, as Stow relates, rose fair hedgerows of elm-trees, with bridges and easy stiles to pass over into the pleasant fields, very commodious for citizens therein to walk, shoot, and otherwise to recreate and refresh their dull spirits in the sweet and wholesome air, a thousand pestilent courts now swarm with beggary, ignorance, and vice. If the wanderer in this Mesheek has visited Rome, he is reminded of the Ghetto, when he sees to what an extent the system of living in the streets prevails, notwithstanding our untoward climate. It is, so far as health is concerned, a remedy in part for the evils resulting from over-crowded hovels, and as such we may rejoice in it. But for the rising generation, it is the prelude to a life of vagrancy. Ragged, muddy, and half-naked, the little creatures patter about the kennels, with garbage, oyster-shells, and broken crockery for toys, while their elder brothers gamble with buttons and halfpennies, wrangling and blaspheming beneath the covered passage to their courts. Many of them are turned out of doors to seek their food for the day. Many are orphans or deserted—to be swept into the maelstrom of crime, unless rescued betimes by the Ragged or Charity Schools. Their minds and bodies are alike unfed, and the ignorance which exists among such children and young persons has lately been brought before the public very prominently in the Report of the Children's Employment Commission. It has been proved by careful inquiry that, in spite of all the efforts made to instruct and reclaim them, a large proportion of those who work in factories between the ages of 7 and 18 are utterly ignorant of the most elementary knowledge. Many will tell you that "Queen Victoria is the Prince of Wales," that "a violet is a pretty bird," that "nobody has a soul," that they do not know who made the world, and that "the devil is a good man."

To such young people, whether in the street or in factories, instinct is the only law. If they are hungry, they steal; what can be more natural? There are pick-pockets of five years old, and skilled practitioners of seven! If the gentlemen of the West-end, who live at home at ease, would judge of their moral condition, let them inspect the densely-crowded rooms, where children and adults of every age and each sex pig together without air or light. Or if they will leave town every season without any personal effort to relieve the misery in the East, let them tread in the steps of Dr. Hunter and visit the cottages of the poor within a mile of their park-gate. He has examined 5,375 such dwellings in various counties, and his statements

disclose a painful and shocking state of things. About half the number contained one bedroom only, with an average of four persons sleeping in each room. Mr. Simon, the medical officer to the Privy Council, gives particular instances of packing in Cambridgeshire and Essex, which remind us more of the hold of an emigrant ship than of those ideal haunts of peace which honeysuckles clasp and elms overshadow. In one place six adults, without counting children, huddle together by night; and in another eight adults in a hut measuring 12 feet 6 inches square! In Lubenham, Leicestershire, a married pair, two youths of twenty and eighteen, a girl of seventeen, and a grand-child, live in one bedroom; while grown-up daughters with their natural children lie constantly strewn on the floor with their brothers, leaving the parents to occupy some miserable bedstead.

The population increases; but, both in town and country, house-room has been on the decrease during the last ten years. Houses have been destroyed to a considerable extent during that period in 821 separate parishes or townships in England. In 1861 the population of these places, though $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. greater than in 1851, was squeezed into house-room $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less. Squares and terraces, "parks and ordered gardens great," multiply on every hand; but the holes in which "tag, rag, and bobtail" burrow are mercilessly earthed-up. His lordship cannot abide those hovels so near his lodge; besides, they are a constant tax on his larder. He has them all pulled down, and the tenants cram anyhow into the nearest village. They will only have six or seven miles more to walk to their work and back—a trifle for lusty limbs!

But to return to Whitechapel. What a hand-to-mouth system prevails; and provident habits are most lacking where they are most needed. The savings are few, and often serve as a temptation to "go on the drink." Yet if a wet season, or a continued frost sets in, thousands will be in danger of starvation. Even a change in fashion, like the going out of embossed silks, will often throw large numbers out of work. Labour in the docks and wharves below London Bridge is especially precarious, and the hands employed vary from 4,000 to 30,000. Woe to the bakers' shops when hunger on a large scale shall invade the East-end! Woe to the rich, also; for the distinction between *meum* and *tuum* will be forgotten in that day. The poor of Whitechapel have heard indeed the precept, "Thou shalt not steal;" but New-court and the rookeries are continually recommending thievery to their notice. The burglar and his mistress, the pickpocket, the "area sneak," the "fence," or receiver of stolen property, are never of the poorest. They live on better fare; rise above the misery of high prices; frequent the music-halls, and make some one or other among the company pay for the night's entertainment. These are the more refined thieves, but besides them, there are swarms of savage-looking men, and coarse, slatternly women, their paramours—all brutalized thieves. It is not into their courts that we would advise the West-end philanthropist to enter unattended by a constable. He would find himself in the midst of the most merciless ruffians under heaven, and they would leave their terriers, their rat-worrying, or cock-fighting in an instant, to fall upon him like birds of prey. Of course, sooner or later, Justice exacts her penalty, the thief is "lagged," and his sentence pronounced by the Bench. But are the discomforts of a prison, to his mind, greater than those of a dock-labourer with an average earning of 7s. 6d. a week? Do not thick soup, treacle puddings, warmth, cleanliness, and abstinence from work on wet days, convert penal servitude into a kind of Promised Land?

But enough, we think, has been said to show how much the East-end may injure the West, and how greatly the West-end may benefit the East. All the efforts of the clergyman and the schoolmaster will be impaired or null, till these rotting masses of males and females are better separated. Like mouldering fruit, they corrupt each other by contact, and the first step towards their reformation must be the erection of model lodging-houses. It is not one here and there, like Mr. Waterlow's and Lord Ingestre's, that will suffice; nor such as will suit clerks and skilled labourers, like Mr. Peabody's. What we want is lodging-houses everywhere, cheap and commodious, for the lodgers are to be reckoned by the thousand. True, lodging-house companies might not succeed as well as other commercial speculations; but what of that? Is there not wealth and charity enough at the West-end to trade upon the hope of moral, spiritual, and social returns, to be content with no profit the first year, and with 3 or 4 per cent. afterwards? Surely it were far better to lose in this way, than to double subscriptions to hospitals, refuges, and charity schools, which restore, perhaps, one sickly sheep in a hundred, but leave the ninety and nine to die together of the rot.

PUBLIC GARDENS.

In the melting month of June—with the thermometer at 130° in the sun, and scarcely any adequate relief from an oppressive sense of heat even after nightfall—the Londoner finds some excuse for that national weakness which allows the weather to be a perpetual topic of conversation. It may be that our rare and brief experience of actual summer makes us less tolerant of its warmth while it *does* last, or it may be that there is some peculiarity in the atmosphere of this country which does not harmonize with the fiercest of Apollo's rays. But to whatever cause we attribute the fact, it is generally admitted that the "dog days" in England seem to be more dreaded than the dog days elsewhere. Perhaps the ordinary conditions of our social life have something to do with the question. Men of business, "cabin'd, cribb'd, and confined" in the City, have to endure not only the natural consequences of the season, but the baneful influence of vitiated air. Those who desire a little relaxation after the fatigues of the day would seek it vainly in our crowded theatres, where the want of ventilation, evident as it is even in winter, becomes just now a painful deficiency. The music-halls—with far less excuse for such a failing—are infinitely worse off in this respect. Our ill-lighted, unpicturesque streets, without a single tree along the footway to relieve their dull monotony, cannot be said to offer great attractions for a promenade. We have no *boulevards*, gay with brilliantly illumined *cafés* and marble tables, inviting an *al fresco* lounge—no piazza, like that of Venice, thronged by gentlefolks and echoing with the martial music of a faultless band at 10 p.m.—no inviting Kursaal gardens, where we may sit or stroll in quiet comfort, as at Wiesbaden or Homburg—no place of resort, in fact, accessible to those who wish to spend a pleasant evening in the open air apart from the inevitable association with "fast life," with which our public gardens have unfortunately become identified.

This was not always so. Without reverting to that remote period when Ranelagh existed as a favourite suburban rendezvous, we may remind our readers that there has been a time when Vauxhall, at least, was respectable, and visited by ladies not only of rank and fashion, but of blameless life. Good Dr. Harrison, in Fielding's "Amelia," consented to accompany Mrs. Booth and her children there with the utmost good will, and actually stopped on the way to attend Divine Service at St. James's Church. Poor Amelia was so delighted with the scene that it seemed almost to realize her notions of heaven; nor did the worthy divine himself rebuke her for this naïve but startling comparison. We are afraid that Vauxhall, in its later days, was anything but a place of recreation, where a country clergyman could enjoy himself without fear of scandal; yet there are old *habitués* of the gardens still living who remember when the amusements there were conducted with the strictest decorum; and when the full dress of their youthful days—including the indispensable *chapeau bras*—was worn as a matter of course by gentlemen who frequented that elysium. The ancient glories of Vauxhall have long since been numbered with things of the past. The fireworks, the vocal and instrumental music, the tightrope dancing, the 'rack-punch—even the matchless "Aerial," who first displayed his exquisite proportions on this arena—are now consigned to oblivion. Before its gates were finally closed to the public, it had degenerated into a vulgar rowdy entertainment. At length the land on which it stood was let for building purposes, and its very site will soon be forgotten.

While it was still in existence two other pleasure grounds were opened to the public—one known as the Surrey Gardens, the other as Cremorne. The first of these had but a brief existence, but it is only fair to add that it was conducted with great propriety, and that while Jullien's band performed there during the summer months, and the performance concluded with a display of fireworks, nothing could be more harmless than the programme of its amusements. Indeed, the same thing may be said of Cremorne, which, to do the present lessee justice, he has always endeavoured to make a respectable place of entertainment. But, unfortunately, at the time it was instituted casinos were in the height of their popularity, and the race of "fast men," a genus now happily in the decline, was still flourishing. A platform had been constructed at Cremorne expressly for dancing, and in summertime the "rapid" frequenters of shilling ball-rooms naturally deserted their old haunts for the purer air and more vivacious polkas of an open garden. The result may be easily imagined. Cremorne attained an unenviable notoriety. An assemblage of people congregated there for whom the place was never intended, but whom it was impossible, without officious legislation, to exclude. The plat-

form was thronged nightly by young gentlemen who feebly imitated the grotesque capers indulged in at Mabilly by students of the Quartier Latin, and whose partners might also have found a French antitype among the *lorettes* of Château Rouge.

Now dancing, *per se*, though not an intellectual, is a very innocent amusement; but dancing in such company as this was neither edifying nor reputable. By degrees Young England found this out for itself, in common with some other useful facts relating to the law of property in general, and door-knockers in particular. In short, the amusements of a "man about town" came to be voted low, and Albert Smith's "gent" was held up for universal execration. It is now no longer considered a brilliant achievement to knock a policeman's hat over his eyes, nor is the blacking of a cutty pipe still reckoned among the accomplishments of a gentleman. Casinos indeed still exist, but they are supported by a class far different from that which frequented them formerly. Gentlemen never think of dancing there. The quadrilles in which *blasé* young dandies once figured are given up to shop-boys, or those dubious and dingy foreigners who haunt the purlieus of Leicester-square. Cremorne has undergone a similar change. The musicians still mount into their orchestra, and very creditable their performance is in its way, but dancing forms only a minor part of the entertainment. A host of other attractions—scenic, pyrotechnical, culinary, and zoological are added—to say nothing of a dozen games and trials of skill, from bowls to *tir au pistolet*, which tend towards a good deal of amusement and no possible harm.

Why need there be any harm in a public garden? Why should respectable men and women be debarred from innocent pleasure by a few noisy or dissolute people who have haunts enough of their own in this great city, where, one would think, room might be found for all? We believe that many a husband and father among the working-tradesmen would gladly take his wife and daughters to such a place if he could be assured that they would see nothing but what he might freely explain to them. Cremorne enjoys many advantages over such places in Paris. It is larger, it contains a greater variety of amusements, and the entrance fee is less than at the French gardens. There is no *entrée libre pour les dames*—a concession which we are ungallant enough to predict would never answer in England. On the other hand there is an elegance, a refinement about Mabilly, which we are unaccustomed to associate with the conduct of similar establishments here. It is, moreover, in common with all public gardens in Paris, under the strict *surveillance* of the police. With the exception of a certain extravagance in the dancing, to which we have already alluded, and which may be accepted as a national tradition, the conduct of the visitors is as sober and decorous as need be. As for drunkenness, it is almost unknown there; and, should a case of the kind occur, the offender would be immediately expelled from the gates.

In the German *bier-garten*, where there is usually no dancing, still greater steadiness prevails. People of all classes—men, women, and children—meet at some "Rosenau," in the suburbs of Frankfort or Munich, to enjoy the evening air, listen to good music, smoke, knit or chat as the case may be, while those who desire refreshment can always have it at a fixed, and very moderate, charge. It is much to be wished either that our public gardens were so far purged from all that is objectionable as to form available resorts in summer for the over-worked population of London, or that others could be instituted which might identify themselves from the first with the interests of the people. We don't want these places for idlers who have time and opportunity to get fresh air whenever they like, but for the thousands who are occupied all day in tiresome sedentary pursuits. To these a well-organised public garden open after business hours, and in an accessible situation, would be a real boon. At a time like the present, so rife in speculation, it is strange that the matter has not been taken up as a commercial project. It would require careful and judicious management, but under such management would probably prove a success.

NEW YORK papers announce the decease of Mrs. Sigourney, the well-known American authoress. Lydia Huntley was born on September 1st, 1791, and was nearly 74 years of age at the time of her decease, which occurred at her residence in Hartford, Connecticut, on the 10th of June. She had been in failing health for some time, but had been confined to her room and bed only three weeks. In 1819 she was married to Mr. Sigourney, a hardware dealer in Hartford, and a man of much culture and literary taste. A prominent feature in the character of Mrs. Sigourney was her great benevolence. She is said to have made it a point to give at least one-tenth of her income to charitable objects.

OUR UNIVERSITY LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE.

THE ordinary B.A. degree day (June 17) passed off with the utmost quietness, not to say dullness. Possibly the appeal put forth by the Vice-Chancellor had something to do with the total absence of noise which was the most remarkable feature of the day, but more probably the fact that the great majority of men not personally concerned had gone down for the vacation was a more direct cause of the unusual stillness. From first to last, a small attempt at applause when a well-known member of the University crew received his degree was the only sign of life the galleries displayed. The Oxford correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette* states that the warning given by the Vice-Chancellor has produced an excellent effect among the unruly members of that University, and the Orator's speeches and other interesting parts of the ceremony of commemoration day would appear to have been received with considerable attention. The same authority remarks that Count Melchior de Vogüé, on being presented for an honorary degree, met with a reception which showed that his fame had not reached the undergraduate ear; a Cambridge audience would, probably, have been more appreciative in this particular instance, for Count de Vogüé's discoveries among the deserted Christian cities in the regions where the church of St. Simon Stylites is still to be found, and his exquisite drawings of the Dome of the Rock, have been brought more than once before the members of the Architectural Society here, and Count de Vogüé himself is no stranger in the University.

The last congregation of the academical year was held on the 22nd, when a few M.A. inceptors were presented,—too late for their degrees to count from this year, as the congregation was *post Comitia*. Mr. Barry, the able master of Cheltenham College, formerly head master of the Leeds Grammar School, which owes its present position to his exertions, received a D.D. degree, and a little formal business was done, and then the work of the year was brought to a close, probably much to the satisfaction of the Vice-Chancellor, who has held his tedious and laborious post for two years. Till very lately, the Vice-Chancellor's tenure of office was strictly confined to one year, by the invariable custom of the University; but at the time of the commission the present Bishop of Worcester, then master of St. Catherine's, was elected for two successive years on account of his brilliant business powers. The precedent once established, the master of Magdalene was soon after re-elected, for no other reason than because he was equal to entertaining the Prince of Wales, who was then in residence. Dr. Cookson, the third instance since the commission years, was re-elected last November because the master of Christ's refused to take the office, and no one had been nominated by the Council except the outgoing Vice-Chancellor and the recusant master.

There is to be a new professorship—for zoology and comparative anatomy. The present professorship of anatomy is a very vague sort of thing, with no specified course of lectures, and it is expected that if the professor will confine himself to human anatomy and physiology, on £300 a year, the proposed professor of comparative anatomy and zoology, also on £300 a year, and a demonstrator in anatomy on £100, will meet all the wants of the University. One of the subjects of discussion in the ensuing year will no doubt be the whole scheme of medical education and examinations in Cambridge, for there is a strong feeling on the part of men practically acquainted with the details of these examinations, that the number of subjects and the amount of knowledge required under the present scheme are almost absolutely prohibitive.

In mentioning some of the buildings going on or recently completed in Cambridge, I omitted last week the new hospital, known as Addenbrooke's Hospital, from the name of its first founder. The building has gone through a good deal of evil report in the course of its gradual growth during the past year, but now that an idea can be obtained of the general effect of the whole, the public voice is all but unanimous in its favour. Mr. Digby Wyatt must be held to have achieved a triumph in a novel style, and it will be well if the Union Society, under Mr. Waterhouse's able guidance, accomplish a result as pleasing in its own way. The subscriptions to the latter scheme are not so liberal as might have been expected, but it is to be hoped that it will not fall through from want of funds, or entail too heavy a debt upon posterity. A very great change will be made before long in the neighbourhood of Trinity by the large building works which the Master is about to commence, as a continuation of the present little court opposite the gateway of the College. The block of houses is to be pulled down between Trinity-street and Sidney-street, along the side of All Saint's passage, and a second Master's court is to take their place. Houses are difficult enough to find already, notwithstanding the numerous buildings which have lately sprung up on all sides of the town, and it is not easy to say where the tradesmen who are turned out to make room for the new court will obtain shops and warehouses. The old church of All Saints, a conspicuous object opposite the gateway of St. John's, with the pavement running under its tower, is now being pulled down, the congregation and services having been transferred to the new and larger church in Jesus-lane.

The Long Vacation has now commenced in earnest, and, as far as work is concerned, it might be called the term, and the May term the vacation. With the beginning of July men appear once more, freed from many restraints, such as college lectures and—for the most part—caps and gowns; and as it is only the professed reading men who come up for the Long, a great deal of serious

work is done. The custom of reading in Cambridge with a private tutor, instead of forming reading parties at the lakes or in some Swiss, or Welsh, or German centre of scenery, or wherever time may be most pleasantly and healthily killed and profession of work made with the least amount of corresponding practice, appears to be on the increase; and even men whose ambition is set very low indeed, obtain permission to reside during the months of July and August. There are many disadvantages in the plan, and if a careful check is not kept on the number of permissions given, and the style of men to whom they are given, the whole thing will become an iniquity. There is a Deputy Proctor appointed for the Long, and whatever benefit may be derived from the fact of that formal appointment, in the way of an *in terrorem* argument, no doubt is derived from it, but the outward effects are not very great. Men do pretty much what they please, and the college authorities are satisfied to know that they are all presumably steady men, or at any rate have got a first in the college examinations, and so have earned the name and the privileges of reading men. One college gives its men leave to reside in Cambridge in the Long, but declines to allow them to occupy rooms in college, so they are thrown upon the world and take lodgings, neither fellow nor undergraduate living within the college walls. Another college gives its men permission to occupy their own rooms, but provides no supervision of any kind—beyond this, that it is expected that every one shall be in college at ten o'clock in the evening, and if any Fellow happens to pass through Cambridge in the course of the Long, and finds from the gatebook that this rule has been transgressed, the offenders are sent down at once. Short of that iniquity they may do whatever seems good in their eyes; and as that recently took the form of fireworks in the college quad, when the Master and Dean and all the officials were in residence, in the middle of term, it may sometimes happen that without such paternal supervision the men may even get beyond fireworks. It does not seem right that a college should be left in the hands of undergraduates, however well disposed they may be; for if young men are good for anything at all, they *must* get into a healthy scrape now and then, and no one knows what to do if there is no official to take suppressive action. It happened, for instance, towards the close of the Easter Vacation that a young Volunteer, ambitious of being a marksman but too idle to march off to the butts, devoted a morning to ball practice from his rooms upon the chimney-pots of a neighbouring college. Unfortunately his ambition surpassed his skill, and he lodged a ball or two in the Tutor's rooms, and, with praiseworthy impartiality, administered a like visitation to the college cooks. The Tutor, who had been under fire in the far East, and knew how unpleasant it was, made off to the delinquent's college and sought for the responsible official. He was told that there was no Fellow in residence, but Mr. —, a married member of the college who lived in the town, was in charge. But Mr. —, on being hunted for, proved to have gone away for a week or two, and some one else, equally undiscoverable, was supposed to be the deputy's deputy. As no redress could be obtained, and the young man continued to make somewhat indiscriminate practice with his rifle, a summons was the only thing left; but fortunately the affair was at last arranged without recourse being had to the town authorities. Of course little difficulties of this kind may arise at any time in some college or other during the Long; and if the Master is fishing in Scotland, and the various Tutors doing Alps, and picture galleries, and America according to their tastes, it is not easy to say who is to keep the men in order.

As far as the columns, however, of the LONDON REVIEW are concerned, the University must, for the next three months, be looked upon as given up to vacation—for there is no University business done, and nothing grave enough to be chronicled is supposed to take place.

THE "LONDON REVIEW" CHURCH COMMISSION.

No. XIII.—DIOCESE OF MANCHESTER.—No. 3.

HOWEVER strong our sympathies may be with the Established Church, it is impossible to disguise from ourselves the fact that her success in the manufacturing districts has not been equal to the estimates held out at the formation of the diocese of Manchester. True the Bishop has been most energetic, and he has chosen with great judgment those to work with him no less enthusiastic than himself; many churches have been consecrated, and some have been endowed, and a large sum of money expended in carrying out the object of Church extension—yet, after all, the candid answer to the demand whether she has obtained the success anticipated must be that she has not. In fact, that the Establishment in the cotton districts, notwithstanding all the labour bestowed upon it, has not kept pace with the increase of the population. Even in the city of Manchester itself, where greater efforts have been made than in any other part of the diocese, the increase of Church accommodation has exceeded by only ten per cent. the growth of the population, while in every other town we visited it has not even kept pace with it. The truth, we are afraid, is that with all the excellence of its doctrines, the energy of its clergy, the

wealth of its laity, and the assistance and *prestige* afforded it as the Church of the Government of the country, the Church of England is not as popular as it ought to be. To what cause this should be attributed it is impossible to say—whether from the zeal and energy of her opponents, or from some radical defects in her own system. We are disposed to believe the latter in many instances to be the case, or it would be impossible, with her vast capabilities for making herself beloved, that the Church should have so little hold on the affections of the majority of the population. In the first place, we greatly fear that occasionally the manners of some of our clergy are not such as to attract. It is true that in their communication with the poor they are kind-hearted and patient, but too often they commit the fault of betraying a sense of superior position which rather repels than attracts. A clergyman of the Church of England (unconsciously, we believe) is too apt to show in his bearing that he is the “highly-educated Christian gentleman, willing to do his duty to the poor,” but to the shrewd democratic imaginations of the Lancashire operative this has but little to recommend it. Even of his own frequently scanty funds the Church of England minister is charitable to excess in proportion with his means, but those who receive his alms too often believe him to be a member of a powerful and wealthy body far above them in position, and the gratitude they pay in return is for this reason by no means so great as it ought to be.

Another source of weakness among the clergy of the Established Church, is their want of union among themselves—a fact which is readily spread abroad, and the parable of the house divided against itself is constantly brought to bear in the minds of the public on the future prospects of the Establishment. The Church of England, in this respect, forms a singular contrast to the policy exhibited by the Roman Catholics. Although dissensions among them are quite as rife as they are among our own clergy on High and Low Church questions, as well as church management in general, they keep their differences of opinion strictly among themselves; or, at any rate, they do not allow them to weaken their Church by imprudently thrusting them under the notice of the public.

We were, a short time back, conversing with an elderly gentleman formerly a clergyman of the Church of England, but who, a few years since, became a convert to the Roman Catholic faith, who drew our attention to the strong attachment showed by the priests to their Church. “You have many points of dispute among your clergy (he said) which they immediately make public, with an acrimony which practically divides your Church itself into, at least, two different sects; while, among our priests, although differences of opinion, apart from doctrinal points run quite as high as they do with you, all keep true to their Church, and, at any rate, present to their adversaries one strong unbroken front.” The remark was a perfectly just one, and may be as fully exemplified in Lancashire as in any part of the kingdom. There we have not only the extremes of High and Low Church doctrines, but frequently (although we admit indirectly) the High Church clergyman will preach against Low Church principles, while the Evangelical party are by no means tardy in retorting. The injury in this manner done to the interests of the Church is truly lamentable, weakening her in her mission work, and often holding her up to the ridicule of the scoffer. The Church of England is continually casting at the Nonconformist bodies the sarcasm that they agree only in dissenting, never considering that her own clergy, while boasting of their unity, are presenting to the world a difference of opinion not only injurious to her own cause, but frequently exposing her to most uncomplimentary remarks as well. On the merits of the High or Low Church question we pass no opinion whatever; but if the Church of England is to prosper, or make up for what she has lost, she must, especially in Lancashire, present a far more united appearance than she does at the present time.

Another source of weakness in the Established Church in the manufacturing districts is that incomprehensible want of power in her clergy in obtaining pecuniary assistance from the wealthy laity. The congregations of the Church of England are indubitably more wealthy than those of the Roman Catholics and Dissenters, and yet the two latter can obtain the most munificent donations, while our laity, with a few most honourable exceptions, appear to be niggardly in the extreme. We are much disposed, as we said before, to place the blame on the clergy themselves, and abundant instances may be quoted where individual clergymen with little to aid them beyond their own indefatigable exertions have obtained funds for building and endowing churches, clearly showing that the liberality of the laity is only dormant. The diocese of Manchester calls for the assistance of the laity in all parts of

the kingdom if the Church is ever to be fully established in it. With its present means such a result is simply an impossibility; and unless some strenuous exertions are made, with great sorrow we make the avowal, we believe the Establishment to be lost. Again, far too great stress appears to be laid on the building of Churches. The Rev. George Huntington is perfectly correct in his book on “The Church Work in Large Towns,” that workers are wanted rather than buildings. The present staff of clergy in the diocese of Manchester is utterly inadequate to the work they have to perform. Additional curates are required, and to obtain them the principle must be adopted so frequently in the mouths of operatives in the manufacturing districts, that of giving a fair day’s wage for a fair day’s work. Till that is done, little good will be effected in the diocese of Manchester. On this subject the Bampton lecturer says, with great truth, “Public and private charity has been lavished upon churches, while the clergymen who serve them have been left to starve.” The evil in every way of such a system is tremendous. You place a man with anxious duties and with crippled means in the midst of a dense, impoverished, and disaffected population. You overtask his physical and mental energies. You throw him hourly into contact with distress which he can by no possibility relieve. You deprive him of the influence which a wise benevolence would give him; you demand from him superhuman exertions, when his spirit is broken, and his peace of mind disturbed by his own domestic anxieties.

Another error may be detected among the clergy of the diocese of Manchester—that of not making sufficient use of lay agency; and this, again, has been rightly touched upon by Mr. Huntington. It is singular to remark the great use of this agency made by the Dissenters and Roman Catholics, and the wonderful results arising from it. In a Dissenting congregation, every member considers himself a portion of the clerical staff, and either in purse or person contributes his utmost to its success. This is rarely so with the Church of England. A few ladies may, perhaps, enrol themselves as district visitors, and one or two gentlemen may assist in the Sunday school; but lay aid seldom goes further. Among the Dissenters, every cotton operative who may be a member of the congregation considers himself bound to assist his minister by teaching in the Sunday school or by making himself useful, at any rate, within his means; but in the Church of England we find few indeed of their class taking any interest in the welfare of their Church. A wonderful instance of the amount of power to be obtained by employing lay agency may be seen in the Sunday schools attached to the Rev. Newman Hall’s chapel in London, where 5,700 children are taught solely by lay unpaid teachers. In the whole Established Church, no similar example could be quoted.

Another source of weakness in the clergy of the Established Church is occasioned by their incessant animosity against Dissenters; and this is the more impolitic, as, strong as the objections may be which the Nonconformists have to the union of Church and State, it is exceedingly rare to hear them speak even with the slightest disrespect either of the Church’s doctrines or her ministers. For the personal bad feeling existing between our clergy and Dissenters, we are compelled to lay the larger share of the blame on the former. To hear in the manufacturing districts a clergyman speak of a Roman Catholic friend was we found by no means an uncommon occurrence; but we never heard one speak of a Dissenting friend; while nothing was more usual than for a Dissenting minister or layman to point out, in terms of high admiration, some clergyman of the Church of England who was exerting himself energetically in the cause of religion. We were one day in conversation with a leading member of the Independent body, and on asking him in what manner they distributed their chapel-building fund, to which we alluded in our last article, he informed us, that on application being made for a grant of money for any particular town, they inquired what were the places of worship already in the district, especially those of the Church of England, and what were the spiritual necessities of the locality. If they found the church accommodation at all adequate, and the clergyman active in the discharge of his duties and preaching the Gospel assiduously, they never made the applicant a grant; it was sufficient that the Protestant religion was being cared for. But if, on the contrary, they found the clergyman time-serving, indolent, or negligent, then they immediately assisted with funds the building of a Dissenting place of worship. A greater proof of the little disaffection which really exists in the minds of Dissenters to the Established Church, may be seen in the fact that, whenever Canon Stowell preaches in Salford, his doctrines and views being of the most liberal description, it is difficult to find

even standing room in his church, a very large proportion of his congregation on those occasions being Nonconformists.

How different is the habitual conduct of the Church to Dissenters! We continually heard while in the diocese of Manchester of the necessity of planting a church in a particular locality in consequence of the influence of Dissenters. This spirit of exclusiveness on the part of the Church is sometimes carried to a most impolitic extent. One fact of the kind came under our notice which appeared so extraordinary that we cannot forbear quoting it, at the same time we may mention that several others of a similar description were pointed out to us equally unaccountable.

Having heard that Mr. Richard Armitage, the son of Sir Elkanah, had established for the operatives of his mills a workman's club and institute which were admirably organized, at Pendleton, near Manchester, we requested permission to inspect them. This was not only readily granted, but we also received an invitation to be present at the Sunday evening class for children, carried on in the same building. We willingly profited by the invitation, and were highly pleased with everything we saw and heard. The building was large and commodious with an excellent library, and well supplied with the best magazines and periodicals; refreshments could be obtained at the most moderate prices, and every comfort and convenience were at hand on a scale which would have cast no disgrace on a London club, with the exception that the fittings-up and embellishments were of a more simple and unpretending description. One thing we noticed particularly worthy of attention, and that was that the basement-floor was arranged with a series of large coppers to allow the women at work in the mills to have their dinners warmed for them when they left their work in the middle of the day.

We were then introduced to the children's Sunday evening class. In a large room on the first-floor we found some five hundred children assembled, ranging from four to ten or twelve years of age. They were seated on benches with a monitor or teacher, generally elder lads, factory operatives, or women employed in the mills. All were well dressed, the adults so much so that we should not have been aware of their occupation if Mr. Armitage had not informed us. During the whole of the service, which might have lasted an hour, the greatest attention and good order prevailed; indeed, we could hardly have believed it possible so much respect and quiet could have been seen in so young and numerous an assembly. The service commenced with a hymn, after which a short, simple prayer, admirably adapted for the comprehension of the children, was offered up by Mr. Armitage, then another hymn was sung, which was followed by a chapter in the Bible. The children then chanted the psalm "Oh, come let us sing unto the Lord," after which a gentleman, whose name we unfortunately forget, read and explained a chapter in the New Testament, and the service finished with the Evening Hymn. The children, headed by their monitors, and without the slightest noise or confusion, then left the room.

During the whole of the proceedings, not a sentence was uttered which could have given umbrage to the most orthodox Churchman, and the hymn-books were those published by the Church Society for the Diffusion of Religious Knowledge. Before leaving the building, we remarked to Mr. Armitage the close resemblance of the service to the doctrines of the Established Church, which appeared to us the more astonishing as he is a leading member of an Independent congregation. "I adopted it on purpose," he replied, "that the clergy of the Church of England might sometimes address the children, but, unfortunately, up to the present time, those I have invited have always objected, although they have all complimented me on the way in which the service was performed." On inquiring what their objections could possibly be, we found that they were all of the same description. The services were not held in a consecrated building. We afterwards took occasion to watch the congregation leaving Pendleton Church, about a hundred yards off. It was very small, and among them certainly there were not a dozen children. We have no wish to deprive Mr. Armitage's evening class of one of its pupils, but when they become adults they may be living in some other locality where the remembrance of an address from a clergyman of the Church of England in their youth might be instrumental in bringing them into the bosom of the Church herself.

While on this subject we cannot but record our great regret at the tone of superiority frequently used by writers on Church matters when speaking of Dissenters, as well as the disrespectful phraseology in which it is expressed. Nothing can be more impolitic than conduct of the kind. It not only excites anger against us in the minds of a vast number who would otherwise possibly be our friends, but we are persuaded it often stimulates

the Dissenters to still greater exertion. We much doubt whether Pastor Spurgeon would have been as energetic as he is if it had not been for the continual abuse heaped upon him. Perhaps the rev. gentleman might repudiate any feeling of the kind, but it seems hardly probable in the English nature for a man to have such continual gratuitous attacks made on him without being stimulated to greater exertion in answering them. Certainly where this system has made him one real enemy it has created him a dozen real friends, and it is more than likely the injustice he has so often received has contributed to a very considerable amount to the power he has at present obtained. To praise incessantly our constitution in "Church and State," our "venerable institutions," our "heroic martyrs," and our "pious and learned reformers," with other stereotyped expressions of the same class, may not be altogether objectionable, though by excessive repetition they begin to be somewhat monotonous; but when it comes to speaking disparagingly of the Dissenting ministers and their congregations, we maintain that it is not only uncourteous, but the effect occasionally is exceedingly injurious. In Lancashire especially this style of literature is much to be deplored, and the more so as it is frequently carried to a most blameable extent. We could quote several productions of the description we allude to, but shall confine ourselves solely to those of the Rev. A. Hume, D.D., incumbent of the new parish of Vauxhall, near Liverpool, and also known as the "Lancashire Incumbent" in his correspondence with the *Times* newspaper some time since. It must not be imagined, however, that we would say one disrespectful word against Dr. Hume beyond his style of speaking of Dissenting bodies, and the somewhat too high praise he lavishes on the purity of his own Church. We believe, on the contrary, that a more indefatigable minister of religion is not to be found among our clergy, and we only mention him as a representative of a certain class of writers. As a specimen of the objectionable style we allude to we will quote the following from his pamphlet, published in 1862, on the Home Mission of the Church of England. At page 27, while speaking on Dissenting places of worship, he says:—

"Of course there were a few older ones on the older Registers, but my object in mentioning the fact is to say that nineteen of these, or forty-three per cent. were for propagating the absurd and impure doctrines of Mormonism. What next and next? Our blessed Lord came to preach the Gospel to the poor, and shall it be that in mighty England's great heart their allegiance is to be divided between the Established Church on the one hand, and the licentious schemes of Joe Smith and Brigham Young on the other?"

We submit that neither by Dr. Hume nor by any other writer ought the Mormons to be classed with our Protestant Dissenters. It is impossible not to conclude that the expression is used offensively, and is not only in bad taste, but also most injudicious.

Again, the rev. doctor frequently lays himself open to attack from the Nonconformists, by the excessive superiority he claims for the Church of England for the way in which she does her duty to the poor. When speaking of "those glorious characteristics of the Church which no adversary can rail away," he says:—"She never deserts the poor, and that she never snatches his scanty morsel of the bread of life from the lips of the poor man to give it to him who fares sumptuously."

Let us now test this statement by only one example (we could produce many), and then ask Mr. Hume if the Church, through his advocacy, comes into court with clean hands.

In the year 1828, some capitalists in London resolved on forming some docks near the Tower. On the land they selected there stood the Hospital of St. Katherine for six poor clerks, as many sisters, and a chaplain and warden. The remaining portion of the revenues were to be applied to the instruction of the children of the poor, and the relief of the sick and needy. The trustees of St. Katherine's Hospital, who had hitherto taken but little interest in it, now finding they had some wealthy capitalists to deal with, drove an exorbitant bargain, and received from the company the sum of £180,000. With this sum of money in their hands, the trustees applied to Lord Lyndhurst for a scheme for its application. At first it was proposed to invest it for the benefit of the Eastern districts, which were then, as now, sadly in want of religious and general instruction; but an objection was raised to the proposition which his lordship appears to have considered valid, and to which we wish especially to call Dr. Hume's attention—that the inhabitants in the neighbourhood of the Tower were a very demoralized class, and that, consequently, the Hospital should be removed to some other locality. The vicinity of the Regent's Park was selected. Here twelve handsome houses were built for the poor brethren and sisters, with a chapel and schools. The brethren are no longer clerks, and the

sisters are no longer poor; but all are generally members of the aristocracy, who add to the incomes allowed them by letting the houses assigned them in the season, at high prices, and even their sittings in the Hospital chapel. Out of a purely ecclesiastical endowment of some seven thousand a year, about four hundred only are employed in something like the uses designated in the original trust; the remainder, a sum equal to that which would be required for the gratuitous education of the whole of the children of the working classes of the riverside parishes of the Tower Hamlets, in the national schools, is divided among those who would consider the reputation of poverty as an insult; and the Hon. William Ashley, the brother of Lord Shaftesbury, receives for his by no means onerous duties as warden a salary of twelve hundred a year.

We are happy to say that a number of the East-end clergy have lately formed themselves into an association for the purpose of endeavouring to restore the funds of this charity to its original uses, and have named the Rev. Simcox Lee, of Stepney, as their honorary secretary. We devoutly wish them success, although we despair of the practicability of obtaining it. The Hospital of St. Katherine may now be ranked among other gross robberies perpetrated in this country on God and the poor; and if it is of more recent date than some others, it has received the sanction of the Court of Chancery, and the silent approbation of the bishops; and we fear Mr. Simcox Lee, and the clergymen associated with him, will not obtain the slightest redress, well as they may deserve it.

Dr. Hume is also in error when he states that in London, when the poor have been driven from a district, the Church and its endowment follows them. Out of many instances to the contrary, we will quote one. The Bishop of London has given the living of St. Christopher-le-Stock to the Rev. Mr. Rowsell, lately one of the hardest working of the East-end clergy. The parish has neither church nor congregation; the whole were removed to make room for the Bank of England, but its revenues, amounting to about £1,500 a year, remain. That no man is better worthy of preferment than Mr. Rowsell, we are perfectly ready to admit; but his present appointment is singularly at variance with the rev. doctor's statement.

Before taking leave of the Rev. Dr. Hume, we cannot help expressing our regret that he should not rather judge for himself of the state of demoralization existing in different districts than accept as facts the descriptions he hears from others. Had he done so, he would never, for example, have put his name to such a statement as the following:—

"I have been told by the police that, in the beat of a well-known London division, covering an area of several square miles, there is hardly a family which does not subsist, either directly or indirectly, by dishonesty. Here, where the existence of honesty, chastity, and truth is confidently denied, or admitted only to serve as a theme for the gibe of the scoffer, where even the possession of human feeling would often be an improvement, and common morality a marked advance in civilization, the only Nonconformist teachers that we are quite sure of meeting are the Secularist and the Mormons."

We know London as well as any policeman, and can assure Dr. Hume there is no such locality. Had he even said acres instead of miles, his informant would have been guilty of gross exaggeration. That there is vice enough and to spare in the metropolis we are perfectly ready to admit; but we are certain, if Dr. Hume would only take the trouble to go even into the worst and most impoverished localities, he would find among the degraded inhabitants but very few who hold "evil their good," or who deny the existence of honesty, chastity, or truth. Even in Bluegate-fields and Tiger Bay he would find ragged schools established both by Churchmen and Dissenters, and he would also hear that their teachers, both male and female, are always treated with the greatest respect, and every possible assistance rendered them in their good work. Human nature, even there, is not so bad as it is painted. We sincerely wish that, instead of carrying on his dispute with the Nonconformists, Dr. Hume would use his really powerful pen and great ability in impressing on the laity of the Church of England the necessity of contributing more liberally to uphold it, and in insisting on those who have robbed it making restitution. At present, we are fully convinced that he and many other writers, especially those who contribute to the Manchester tracts, are doing far more harm than good by the impolitic course they are pursuing.

The last weak point in the policy of the clergy of the Established Church in the manufacturing districts to which we shall allude is their not identifying it sufficiently with the working classes, thereby losing a vast amount of power they might otherwise obtain. By the working classes we do not mean solely the poor—on that point there is nothing to be

desired. The attention shown by the clergy as a body to those in distress is above all praise; it is the aid of the long-headed, shrewd operatives that is wanting to its support. There is perhaps no country in Europe where the working man has less power of advancement by education than in England. By dint of industry, he may certainly arrive at wealth and position; but there is little chance indeed of his deriving any worldly advantage from study. At present, a strong, industrious, active lad may, through a trade or manufacture, have a career open to him; but the prospect of the delicate boy, no matter how great his intelligence may be, is blank indeed. If the clergy were to exert themselves to get occasional scholarships for the larger national schools, it would be a great advantage to the cause of the Established Church in enlisting the sympathies of the working classes in its favour.

Among the Nonconformists it is no uncommon occurrence for the son of a working man to become an influential, talented minister of the Gospel; in the Church of Scotland it is the same; but out of the 17,000 clergy of the Established Church, would it be possible to find seventeen who have risen from the ranks? Again, the knowledge that the children of their class, by diligence and study, could rise in the Church would render the Establishment far more attractive to them than it is in the present day.

From what we have seen of the cotton districts, we are fully convinced that the future of the Church is in a most precarious condition, and that some active agency is at present required to fix it on a firm basis. We have not the presumption to believe there may not be many other means of strengthening it than those we have pointed out; but the subject is one which requires grave consideration and energetic action. Above all, greater unanimity must exist among the clergy themselves before much good can be obtained; and last, not least, the Bishop of the diocese should take more pains in making himself liked both among his clergy and laity. That he is energetic in the cause of the Church we are perfectly ready to admit; but an unfortunate manner neutralizes a great deal of the good which might otherwise be obtained by his earnestness. All through his diocese we heard many speak of his ability and good intentions with high praise, but very few indeed said "God bless him!"

FINE ARTS.

MUSIC.

THE musical interest of the past week has, of course, almost entirely centred in the performances of the Handel Festival at the Crystal Palace—an event of which the magnitude and importance overshadow all the surrounding transactions of operas and concerts. The assembling of something like 4,000 vocal and instrumental performers for the execution of the sublimest works of one of the sublimest of composers in presence of audiences attracted from all quarters, nearly four times the number of executants, is a feat so gigantic and so especially English in its object, its conception, and successful accomplishment, as to render it a matter of national pride and congratulation. These triennial performances, which now appear to have become a permanent institution, have relieved London from the reproach to which it was for many years subject, of having no such grand periodical musical celebrations as those which are regularly held at some of our provincial cities. The impulse given to choral singing by the preliminary rehearsals for the Handel Festival, held long beforehand by different sections of choristers in town and country, is a large and permanent benefit attending the scheme. It were, however, to be wished that somewhat more variety should be given to the selection. On the present occasion, as in 1859 and in 1862, the "Messiah" and "Israel in Egypt" were given on the first and third days, the second day being devoted to a miscellaneous programme, consisting of extracts from various other works of Handel. No doubt in so vast an undertaking it is a great advantage and facility to give those works which are most familiar to choristers generally, as well as to the Sacred Harmonic Society, on whose organization the whole undertaking is based—still, from the large number of Handel's oratorios, some other work might advantageously be introduced to give fresh interest to the performances.

The grand public rehearsal took place at the Crystal Palace on Friday week, when some of the principal pieces from each day's programme were given; thus affording to those visitors who were unable to attend each day, a *résumé* of the chief features of the whole series of performances. Since the last festival some improvements were made, in the adaptation of the central transept to musical purposes, by the addition of screens which tended to concentrate the sound to a greater degree than formerly. No contrivance, however, can entirely counteract the defects which must always attend a performance by such a multitude of executants in so vast an area. The delicacies and expression of solo singing, the accuracy of choral execution in florid passages (as for instance in the choruses "For unto us," "And he shall purify," "The horse

and his rider," &c.) must be more or less sacrificed under such conditions. On the other hand, in broad, massive, and simple effects, such as "See the conquering hero," or the slow *alla capella* choruses in "Israel in Egypt," the accumulation of sound obtained at these monster musical gatherings rises to a sublimity which is scarcely attainable by smaller means.

One of the special features of this year's festival was the engagement of Mdle. Adelina Patti as principal soprano—a position held at the festival of 1859 by Madame Clara Novello, and by Mdle. Tietjens at that of 1862. Mdle. Patti had already proved her capacity for oratorio singing by her recent performances in Mr. Costa's "Naaman," which derived no small advantage from the earnest and fervid style of this accomplished artist. Of course, however, the sublimity of Handel was a much severer test than the florid and secular style of the modern work, but Mdle. Patti was fully equal to the occasion, whether in the solemn and awful, "I know that my Redeemer liveth," in the first day's performance of the "Messiah;" or, in the second day's miscellaneous selection, in the brilliant air of display, "Let the bright Seraphim" (with the difficult trumpet obbligato, admirably played by Mr. Harper). Indeed, throughout the public rehearsal of Friday week, and the performances of Monday and Wednesday, Mdle. Patti's success was such as to rival her greatest triumphs in the very opposite walk of art with which she has hitherto been identified.

There is no need for special details of performances which were almost identical with those of the two previous festivals—even the miscellaneous selection of Wednesday, when there was every opportunity for variety, presenting but little difference from the former occasions. Mr. Sims Reeve's fine declamatory singing, often as it is heard in Exeter Hall, requires no fresh comment—nor is it necessary to reiterate the fact that Mr. Santley is the best baritone now before the public. With these artists, in addition to Mesdames Sainton-Dolby, Lemmens-Sherrington, Parepa, and Rudersdorff, Mr. Cummings, Herr Schmid, and Mr. Weiss, the solos could not fail to be admirably rendered, although necessarily somewhat marred by the disadvantages of the situation. Of the energy and ability displayed by Mr. Costa in directing and conducting so vast an assemblage of performers, it would be impossible to speak too highly,—to this cause is largely owing the success of an undertaking which, among its best results, serves to keep alive a due reverence for one of the greatest of composers, and one, moreover, especially identified both with our national and our religious feelings.

The following is the programme of the seventh Philharmonic Concert, held on Monday last:—

PART I.	
Overture (Preciosa)	Weber.
Aria (Maometto Secondo), Signor Agnesi	Rossini.
Concerto in E minor, Herr Joachim	Spohr.
Finale to "Loreley," Mdle. Tietjens	Mendelssohn.
PART II.	
Symphony in A	Beethoven.
Aria (Il Seraglio), Mdle. Tietjens	Mozart.
Chaconne, Herr Joachim	Bach.
Aria (Le Nozze di Figaro), Signor Agnesi	Rossini (sic).
Overture (Les Deux Journées)	Cherubini.

Conductor—Professor Sterndale Bennett, Mus.D.

The performance was full of interest. The magnificent fragment of Mendelssohn's projected opera is sufficient to show what the world has lost by the non-fulfilment of the work. Had Mendelssohn lived to complete "Loreley," there is little doubt that he would have proved himself the equal of Weber in the department of romantic opera as certainly as he has already manifested his superiority to him in every other form of the art. The *finale* to "Loreley" has all Weber's poetical imagination and intense dramatic passion, with a coherence of form and construction in which Weber was somewhat deficient. Its delivery by Mdle. Tietjens was incomparably the finest rendering it has ever received—such intense passion, dramatic colour, and force of expression, with vocal power, are not combined by any other singer of the day. Mozart's extremely difficult song, demanding an exceptional voice, of more than two octaves in compass, written to display the special powers of a special singer, was a most interesting revival. Its charming orchestration, with solo passages for various instruments, is, in itself, a study. Signor Agnesi is an accomplished singer, with an excellent baritone voice, which was effectively displayed both in the excessively florid air of Rossini and the infinitely superior "Non più andrai" of Mozart (not Rossini, as in the programme). The overtures and symphony were generally well played, with an utter misconception, however, of the *tempo* of the introductory movement and the trio of the symphony—the first being taken as much too slow as the other was too fast. Herr Joachim was, as always, equally admirable in the very opposite styles of the pieces which he performed.

The Musical Society terminated its season on Wednesday. The following selection was performed:—

PART I.	
Symphony in B flat	Haydn.
Air (The Mountain Sylph), Madame Lemmens-Sherrington	John Barnett.
Concertstück—Pianoforte—Madame Arabella Goddard	Weber.
Air (Les Diamants de la Couronne), Madame Lemmens-Sherrington	Auber.
Overture (Don Quixote)	G. A. Macfarren.

PART II.

Symphony in A	Mendelssohn.
Cavatina (Il Barbiere), Madame Lemmens-Sherrington	Rossini.
Hungarian March	Berlioz.

The instrumental pieces were played with that precision and light and shade for which the orchestral performances of this society have long been specially distinguished. The allegros of Haydn's symphony, however, were taken much too fast to be in accordance with the spirit of the work; and the same may be said of Weber's concerto which, admirable and faultless as was the mechanical execution, was so hurried as to remind one of a high-mettled steed running away from all control of bit and bridle. Mr. Macfarren's overture is spirited and brightly scored, but does not contain a single new idea, or even a novel combination of the ideas of others. Of what use is the production of music of this class? Nothing could be more opposite than Mendelssohn's lovely and glowing "Italian Symphony," with its delicate instrumentation, and Berlioz's characteristic and very noisy march; both were admirably played. Barnett's air agreeably reminded us of an opera full of merit, and in remarkable contrast to the English music of more recent years. Surely it would be better to revive such a work, and others by the same composer, than to risk such novelties as we have had during the last two or three seasons of the English Opera. Madame Lemmens-Sherrington displayed her versatile talent in each of her airs, English, French, and Italian, the latter (as the programme stated) "newly arranged for her by the composer;" in other words, overlaid with newly-interpolated ornaments and cadenzas by Rossini himself.

The remaining events of the season will be the revival of Mozart's "Zauberflöte" at Her Majesty's Theatre, and the production of Meyerbeer's "L'Africaine" at the Royal Italian Opera. "Fra Diavolo," positively announced for to-night at the latter establishment being apparently withdrawn, since it is no longer mentioned in programmes or advertisements.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

The "great and undoubted success" of "Geraldine" (see play-bills, advertisements, and certain so-called criticisms) has led to the withdrawal of the piece, after a few nights' trial, and the farewell benefit of Miss Bateman. Her last performance at the Adelphi, on Saturday, was in the character of Pauline in the "Lady of Lyons," and she will repeat this performance to-night (July 1), for the benefit of Mr. Benjamin Webster. In construction, the "Lady of Lyons" is admirable. The clear, presentable character of the story, the strict dependence of incident upon incident, the even apportionment of the plot from act to act, and the steady increase in interest from beginning to end, render this—the only successful romantic drama of the author—a study for dramatic writers. These qualities amply explain its success; indeed, the play has few or no other merits. Its poetry is mere tawdry rhetoric, and its sentimentality is offensive to good taste. The pedigree of its story is curious, and, as far as we know, has never been pointed out. Sir E. B. Lytton tells us that he was indebted for the plot to a popular story; and we have somewhere seen it stated that it was founded on a tale which appeared more than a quarter of a century since in Chambers's *Edinburgh Journal*. As the play appeared a year or two after that time, it is probable that this was the source from which Sir E. B. Lytton derived it; but the writer of the tale was himself indebted for it to another source. It appeared originally under the title of "Perouron, the Bellows-mender," in a now forgotten book by Miss Helen Maria Williams, published at the beginning of the present century, under the title of "Sketches of the State of Manners and Opinions in the French Republic." It is, in fact, to the fertile brain of this once celebrated lady, the chief of the Della Cruscan, whom Gifford so mercilessly handled, that we owe that Minerva-press sentimentality—that gush of Gallic sensibility—which pervades the whole story, and makes Claude Melnotte so detestable a hero in the eyes of all but young ladies very far gone in the reading of penny journals.

About a year ago, a piece adapted from the French, called "A Woman of Business," was produced at the Adelphi; and, owing chiefly to the admirable acting of Mrs. Stirling and Mr. Toole in the two chief characters, it achieved a certain success. This week, another translation of the same piece has appeared at the Strand Theatre, under the title of "The Better Half," for the purpose, doubtless, of showing the barrenness of invention of English dramatic authors.

The complimentary benefit to Mr. Leigh Murray at Drury Lane, on Tuesday morning last, was a fair financial success, and it was distinguished by a "brief scene," or double address, written by Mr. Shirley Brooks—our best address-writer—in his most graceful and touching manner. It was delivered by Mr. and Mrs. Leigh Murray with real emotion, and was received by the audience with equal feeling.

Mr. and Mrs. Alfred Wigan gave the first of their annual series of readings this season on Wednesday morning, at Apsley House (by permission of the Duke of Wellington), before the Prince of Wales and a large and fashionable audience. The chief feature of the reading worth recording was an admirable rendering of Tennyson's poem of the "Northern Farmer" by Mr. Wigan—a rough, strong sketch of character which ought to have startled the audience, and which certainly withdrew the ladies' attention from each other's

bonnets. We may take this opportunity of asking how much longer Mr. Alfred Wigan is to be kept out of a London theatre, and the public to be deprived of one of its best actors?

SCIENCE.

A MOST important memoir on the classification of the Lemurs (a low group of the monkey order) has just issued from the pen of Mr. St. George Mivart, of St. Mary's Hospital. In this the writer, appealing to structural characters of the skulls and teeth, rather than to mere outer features of form and colour, has struck out a philosophical arrangement of the Lemuridae. Dividing all quadrumana into two groups—Anthropoidea, those which resemble man, and Lemuroidea—he proceeds to arrange the latter under their families—*Lemuridae*, *Tarsidae*, and *Cheiromyidae*. To the already well known distinctions between these three groups, Mr. Mivart adds that in the *Tarsidae* the third digit of the hand is the longest, while the second and fourth digits are nearly equal—a combination which occurs in no other species of the sub-order. Furthermore, he observes that in the genus *Tarsius* alone of all the *Lemuroidea* is the orbit closed behind by the union of the malar and alisphenoid bones. Our space does not permit us to review Mr. Mivart's classification *in extenso*, but we may remark that while the families *Tarsidae* and *Cheiromyidae* include only the genera from which their respective names are derived, the *Lemuridae* are divided into four sub-families, which embrace fifteen genera, whose characters are given by the author with terse zoologic accuracy.

We have just received from M. de Quatrefages a copy of his essay on the classification of annelids. It is a reprint of his article in the *Comptes Rendus*, but he has appended to it an analysis of M. Claparède's critique in the *Bibliothèque Universelle de Genève* for April last. The French naturalist replies very fully to the strictures of the Geneva one, and justifies his views by a reference to the structure of the animals whose classification forms the subject of discussion.

Meteorology is steadily, and, considering the difficulties in its way, rapidly becoming an important science. In this country its growth and development are chiefly owing to the persevering investigations of Mr. James Glaisher, F.R.S., who, at the risk of his life, has taught us many facts which have not only enhanced our meteorological knowledge, but have considerably modified doctrines in other departments of physical science. In a recent lecture delivered in the theatre of the Royal Institution, he gave the following summary of the objects of balloon researches:—(1.) To determine the rate of decrease of temperature with increase of elevation, and to ascertain whether the results obtained by observations on mountain sides, viz., a decrease of 1° in temperature for every 300 feet of elevation, be true or not. (2.) To determine the distribution of the water in the invisible state of vapour, in the air below the clouds, in the clouds, and in the air above them, at different elevations. (3.) To compare the results obtained by different instruments. (4.) To investigate the phenomena of solar radiation at different heights. (5.) To determine whether the solar spectrum, when viewed from the earth and far above it, exhibited any difference. Whether there were a greater or lesser number of dark lines crossing it, particularly when near sunset. (6.) To determine whether the horizontal intensity of the earth's magnetism was less or greater with elevation. One of the most interesting inferences from Mr. Glaisher's experiments is, that the heat-rays from the sun pass through space without loss, and become effective in proportion to the atmosphere, or the amount of water present in the atmosphere through which they pass; and, if so, the proportion of heat received at Mercury, Venus, Jupiter, and Saturn may be the same as that received at the earth, if the constituents of these atmospheres be the same as that of the earth, and greater if the density be greater, so that the effective solar heat at Jupiter and Saturn may be greater than at either the inferior planets, Mercury or Venus, notwithstanding their far greater distances from the sun.

Owing to what certainly ought to be considered bad management, the soirées of the Royal College of Surgeons and University College were both held on Wednesday evening last.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

JOINT-STOCK SPECULATIONS: THEIR VALUE AND PROSPECTS.

No. I.—BANKS.

MONEY, which has for several months been getting cheaper, has now reached a point below which it cannot well go; and, as a consequence, the fraternity of adventurers who make a precarious living by projecting new companies are again at their work, each blowing the praises of his own particular *El Dorado*, and employing all the arts of his unscrupulous trade to entrap the unwary. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that anyone who has money to invest can select from seven or eight new companies per diem, whose advantages are

so great, if we may believe their professions, that not only will the shareholders make their fortunes, but the public, by their means, will be able to purchase tea, biscuits, wine, or what you will, at prices which, were the community to buy and consume them, would inevitably lead to a considerable increase in the death-rate of the population. In fact, the whole world is running wild after joint-stock enterprises, of which only a very few justify the promises which have been made on their behalf. As a rule, to-day's *El Dorado* turns out to-morrow to be a bubble. The projectors thrive, but the investors, if they become wiser men, become also sadder and poorer ones. Unfortunately, in this general rush for investment the public have not had from the press that guidance for which they naturally look to it. On the contrary, it is too often the case that a man's newspaper helps to mislead him, and this default on the part of writers who have the power to influence the actions of a very numerous class, especially of persons who are seeking to invest their "little all," is so reprehensible that we cannot be silent about it. It may not be the duty of a newspaper to undertake for its readers the task of discriminating between sound and unsound investments; but it is certainly a gross violation of trust on the part of any journal to exchange its commendations for advertisements—a practice as prevalent as it is disgraceful, and which falls nothing short of robbery, all the more mischievous because of the insidious character of the *modus operandi*. Journals which disgrace themselves by sharing the spoils of unprincipled speculators betray the interests of the public instead of protecting them, and their conduct is the more to be condemned inasmuch as they are often the only guide which many thousands of the population possess for the investment of their money.

We shall perhaps render our readers some service, in a different direction, if, in the midst of the general desire for speculation, with the whole moneyed population looking out for profitable investments, we review, in this paper and those that will follow it under the same title, the success which has attended the different classes of undertakings which the Limited Liability Act has called into existence. Such a review will not have the effect of distinguishing between individual speculations, but it will enable us to ascertain what classes of investment have made the best return for the public support they have received. This alone will furnish no unimportant guide to investors. If, for instance, it shall be found that but a small per-centage of banking companies have been able to keep their shares at a premium, while a greater per-centage, say of tea or other companies, have succeeded in doing so, the inference will be inevitable that the latter are a better investment than the former. And in making this comparison, there can be no doubt of the accuracy of the facts on which it will be based. The price-lists of shares supply us with unquestionable data.

To begin, then, with the joint-stock banks which have been started since 1861, we find that in this direction speculation has overshot the mark, and that the number of banks which have justified the expectations of shareholders is exceedingly small. No less than forty have been founded, and taking the aggregate of their paid-up capital, with their aggregate market values in March and June, we have the following results:—

Capital paid up.	Latest March value.	Latest June value.
£11,175,185	£12,488,703	£11,831,556

Thus the market value on March 18 shows an increase upon the paid-up capital of £1,313,518. But of the forty banks established, sixteen only show an increase, three stand still, while the remaining twenty-one show a loss. The gain of the sixteen, representing a paid-up capital of £5,692,500, was £2,435,000. But no less than £1,821,250 of this sum is taken up by the Alliance, Consolidated, Imperial, National of Liverpool, and North-Western. On the other hand, twenty-one banks, showing a depreciation to the extent of £931,482 upon a capital of £4,772,685. The Albion partakes of this loss to the extent of £25,000 upon a capital of £100,000; the Mercantile and Exchange to the extent of £100,000 on a capital of £400,000; the Anglo-Italian, £70,000 on £200,000; the London Bank of Scotland, £55,000 on £130,000; the London, Birmingham, and South Staffordshire, £45,000 on £110,000; the London, Hamburg, and Continental Exchange, £40,000 on £90,000; and the London and Venezuela, £32,500 on £50,000. But at the present time, comparing the market value now with the market value in March, we find that of the forty banks one disappears altogether, one has made no progress, eleven have increased in market value to the extent of £236,787, and twenty-seven have made a loss of £1,232,434,—showing on the balance of these results a total loss to the public in three months of £995,647. In March the market value of the capital

of sixteen banks had increased, in June only fourteen retained this favourable position in public estimation; the number of those which had lost upon the market value of their paid-up capital being increased from twenty-one to twenty-four. Of the sixteen banks whose market value had increased up to the 18th of March, twelve retrograded to the extent of £581,875, of which the Alliance lost £157,500, the Hindustan, China, and Japan £60,000; the Scinde, Punjab, and Delhi £140,625.

The truth is that making every allowance for the difficulties attending new undertakings, and the delay which may reasonably be expected before large profits can be obtained, it is clear that speculation in this direction has been overdone. The field is exhausted, and the chance in favour of the success of new speculations is much less than the probability of their failure. This will more strikingly appear if we look at the state of the banks established before 1861, which show an almost uniform success, compared to which the prosperity of even the successful banks established since 1861 is trifling. In only one instance have the new banks made an increase in market value to the extent of nearly a million. That case is the Consolidated Bank, which differs from the other new banks in this important particular, that it is merely an instance of one of the old private banking connections being worked under the joint-stock system, and in this instance the increase was in March £993,750. Not one of the others reach a quarter of a million; only two exceed £200,000; one makes £200,000; two are over £130,000 and below £150,000; one makes £75,000; one £60,000; while the others range between £10,000 and £37,000. Now if we turn to the table, which shows the state of the old banks, these results become in comparison contemptible. The increase in the market value of the old banks in March ranges in twelve instances between £1,027,500 and £3,650,000; and in June,

in twelve instances, between £1,100,000 and £3,850,000. In nine instances, the March increased value ranges between £504,750 and £911,250; and in June, in seven instances, between £549,000 and £911,250. In ten instances, the March increased value is between £300,000 and £471,000; and in June, in twelve instances, it is between £320,000 and £483,750. In nine instances we find in March an increased market value of from £112,500 to £284,400; and in June, in ten instances, an increase of from £107,500 to £296,250.

There cannot be a moment's doubt, after such a comparison as we have here made (having regard to the premiums which shares in the new undertakings obtained when first commenced, and the present estimation in which they are held by the investing public), that speculation in new banks is a mistake. The market is already overstocked with undertakings of this kind. When promoters invite the confidence of the public in favour of new banking schemes, by pointing to the success of those already established, they have certainly a tempting bait to offer. But, beware of the hook! It is true, that upon a paid-up capital of £750,000, the June market value of the London and County was £2,850,000; that upon a paid-up capital of £1,200,000, the June market value of the Union Bank of London was £4,400,000; that upon a paid-up capital of £1,000,000, the June market value of the London and Westminster was £4,850,000; that in the case of the Agra and Mastermans' Bank, on a capital of £1,000,000, the market value was £2,280,000. But this is only one side of the question. Our readers who have money to invest will do well to study both sides. To enable them to do so, we print the following tables, showing the relative success of the banks established before 1861, and those which have been established since, omitting those which have either failed or been absorbed.

BANKS ESTABLISHED BEFORE 1861.

Name.	Paid-up Capital, Mar. 1865.	Further Calls.	Paid-up Capital, June 1865.	Market Value in March.	Progress to March.		Market Value in June.	Progress to June.		Progress between March and June.	
					Increase.	Decrease.		Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Agra & Mastermans'	1,000,000	...	1,000,000	2,500,000	1,500,000	...	2,280,000	1,280,000	...	220,000	...
Bank of Australasia	1,200,000	...	1,200,000	2,227,500	1,027,500	...	2,092,500	1,108,500	135,000
Bank of Egypt	250,000	...	250,000	310,000	60,000	...	310,000	60,000
Bank of Liverpool	625,000	...	625,000	1,368,750	743,750	...	1,381,250	636,250	...	12,500	...
Bank of London	300,000	...	300,000	900,000	600,000	...	849,000	549,000	51,000
Bank of New South Wales	1,000,000	...	1,000,000	2,150,000	1,150,000	...	2,100,000	1,100,000	50,000
Bank of New Zealand	500,000	...	500,000	825,000	325,000	...	875,000	375,000	...	50,000	...
Bank of Stockport	60,000	...	60,000	78,000	18,000	...	76,750	16,750	1,250
Bank of Victoria	500,000	...	500,000	800,000	300,000	...	860,000	360,000	...	60,000	...
Belfast Banking Company	125,000	...	125,000	491,250	366,250	...	525,000	400,000	...	33,750	...
Bilston District Bank	60,000	...	60,000	132,000	72,000	...	111,000	51,000	21,000
Birmingham & Midland Bank	200,000	...	200,000	640,000	440,000	...	640,000	440,000
Birmingham Banking Company	300,000	...	300,000	997,500	697,500	...	982,500	682,500	15,000
Birmingham Joint-Stock Bank	170,150	...	170,150	621,000	450,850	...	591,000	420,850	30,000
Birmingham Town & District Bank	108,000	...	108,000	306,000	198,000	...	297,000	189,000	9,000
British North America Bank	1,000,000	...	1,000,000	885,000	...	115,000	960,000	...	40,000	75,000	...
Caledonian Bank	125,000	...	125,000	237,500	112,500	...	243,750	118,750	...	6,250	...
Chartered Bank of India, Australia, & China	800,000	...	800,000	1,240,000	640,000	...	1,120,000	320,000	120,000
City Bank	500,000	...	500,000	1,105,000	605,000	...	1,105,000	605,000
Colonial Bank	500,000	...	500,000	840,000	340,000	...	820,000	320,000	20,000
Commercial Bank of Liverpool, Limited	350,000	...	350,000	634,400	284,400	...	634,400	284,400
Coventry Union Bank	56,000	...	56,000	76,660	20,660	...	76,200	20,200	460
English, Scottish, & Australian Chartered	600,000	...	600,000	570,000	...	30,000	592,500	...	7,500	22,500	...
Gloucestershire Bank	240,000	...	240,000	810,000	570,000	...	802,500	562,500	7,500
Hull Banking Company	62,800	...	62,800	108,800	46,000	...	108,800	46,000
Imperial Ottoman	1,350,000	...	1,350,000	2,261,250	911,250	...	2,261,250	911,250
Ionian Bank	150,000	...	150,000	168,000	18,000	...	162,000	12,000	6,000
London & County	750,000	...	750,000	2,700,000	1,950,000	...	2,850,000	2,100,000	...	150,000	...
London and South African	500,000	...	500,000	537,500	37,500	...	450,000	...	50,000	...	87,500
London & Westminster	1,000,000	...	1,000,000	4,650,000	3,650,000	...	4,850,000	3,850,000	...	200,000	...
London Chartered Bank of Australia	1,000,000	...	1,000,000	1,150,000	150,000	...	1,250,000	250,000	...	100,000	...
London Joint-Stock	720,000	360,000	1,080,000	3,312,000	2,592,000	...	3,600,000	2,520,000	72,000
Manchester & County Bank, Limited	491,200	...	491,200	638,550	147,350	...	640,600	149,400	...	2,050	...
Manchester & Liverpool District Bank	822,300	...	822,300	2,405,300	1,583,000	...	2,919,170	2,096,870	...	513,870	...
National Bank	600,000	...	600,000	1,925,000	1,325,000	...	2,000,000	1,400,000	...	75,000	...
National Provincial Bank of England	420,000	...	420,000	1,570,000	1,150,000	...	1,630,000	1,210,000	...	60,000	...
North & South Wales Bank	300,000	...	300,000	804,750	504,750	...	783,750	483,750	21,000
North of Scotland Bank	280,000	...	280,000	638,000	358,000	...	640,000	360,000	...	2,000	...
Provincial Bank of Ireland	500,000	...	500,000	1,710,000	1,210,000	...	1,800,000	1,300,000	...	90,000	...
Royal Bank of Ireland	300,000	...	300,000	933,750	633,750	...	930,000	630,000	3,750
Royal Bank of Liverpool	500,000	...	500,000	675,000	175,000	...	643,750	143,750	31,250
Shropshire Banking Company	45,000	...	45,000	90,000	45,000	...	91,875	46,875	...	1,875	...
South Australian Bank	500,000	...	500,000	690,000	190,000	...	730,000	230,000	...	40,000	...
Staffordshire Joint-Stock Bank	150,000	...	150,000	272,500	122,500	...	257,500	107,500	15,000
Stourbridge & Kidderminster Bank	100,000	...	100,000	117,500	17,500	...	117,500	17,500
Ulster Banking Company	183,400	...	183,400	586,900	403,500	...	586,900	403,500
Union Bank of Australia	1,250,000	...	1,250,000	2,650,000	1,400,000	...	2,750,000	1,500,000	...	100,000	...
Union Bank of Liverpool	450,000	...	450,000	761,250	311,250	...	746,250	296,250	15,000
Union Bank of London	1,200,000	...	1,200,000	4,160,000	2,960,000	...	4,400,000	3,200,000	...	240,000	...
Union Bank of Manchester, Limited	400,000	...	400,000	585,000	185,000	...	570,000	170,000	15,000
Warwick & Leamington	32,500	...	32,500	45,000	12,500	...	45,500	13,000	...	500	...
West of England & South Wales District	750,000	...	750,000	1,137,500	387,500	...	1,112,500	362,500	25,000
Wolverhampton & Staffordshire Bank	100,000	...	100,000	137,500	37,500	...	137,500	37,500
Yorkshire Banking Company	152,300	...	152,300	623,500	471,200	...	620,200	467,900	3,300
Totals	25628650	360,000	25988650	58790110	33506460	145,000	60070395	34215245	97,500	2055295	755,010

BANKS ESTABLISHED SINCE 1861.

Name.	Paid-up Capital, Mar. 1863.	Further Calls.	Paid-up Capital, June 1865.	Market Value in March.	Progress to March.		Market Value in June.	Progress to June.		Progress between March and June.	
					Increase.	Decrease.		Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
Albion	£ 100,000	...	£ 100,000	£ 75,000	...	25,000	£ 60,000	...	40,000	...	15,000
Alliance	750,000	...	750,000	1,005,000	235,000	...	847,500	97,500	157,500
Anglo-Austrian	600,000	...	600,000	737,000	137,500	...	725,000	125,000	12,500
Anglo-Egyptian	500,000	...	500,000	510,000	10,000	...	490,000	...	10,000	...	20,000
Anglo-Italian	200,000	100,000	300,000	130,000	...	70,000	220,000	...	80,000	...	10,000
Bank of British Columbia	187,500	...	187,500	212,500	25,000	...	200,000	12,500	12,500
Bank of Otago	175,000	...	175,000	125,000	...	50,000	125,000	...	50,000
Bank of Queensland	250,000	...	250,000	210,000	...	40,000	205,000	...	45,000	...	5,000
Bank of Wales	100,000	...	100,000	75,000	...	25,000	Merged into another Bank
Brazilian & Portuguese	500,000	...	500,000	500,000	437,500	...	62,500	...	62,500
British & Californian	150,000	...	150,000	100,000	...	50,000	90,000	...	60,000	...	10,000
Consolidated Bank	600,000	...	600,000	1,593,750	993,750	...	1,575,000	975,000	18,750
Continental Bank Corporation, Limited..	200,000	...	200,000	130,000	...	70,000	185,000	...	15,000	55,000	...
East London	100,000	...	100,000	115,000	15,000	...	125,000	25,000	...	10,000	...
Eastern Exchange Bank, Limited	250,000	...	250,000	206,250	...	43,750	187,500	...	62,500	...	18,750
English & Swedish	300,000	100,000	400,000	250,000	...	50,000	320,000	...	80,000	70,000	...
European Bank	840,000	...	840,000	784,000	...	56,000	616,000	...	224,000	...	168,000
Hindustan, China, & Japan	250,000	...	250,000	260,000	10,000	...	200,000	...	50,000	...	60,000
Imperial Bank	450,000	...	450,000	697,500	247,500	...	652,500	202,500	45,000
Land Mortgage of India	400,000	...	400,000	475,000	75,000	...	412,500	12,500	62,500
London Bank of Mexico	200,000	50,000	250,000	170,000	180,000	...	70,000	...	40,000
London Bank of Scotland	130,000	...	130,000	75,000	...	55,000	60,000	...	70,000	...	15,000
London & Brazilian	520,000	...	520,000	546,000	26,000	...	591,500	71,500	...	45,000	...
London, Buenos Ayres, & River Plata ...	200,000	...	200,000	237,500	37,500	...	250,000	50,000	...	12,500	...
London, Birmingham, & South Stafford ..	110,000	...	110,000	65,000	...	45,000	70,000	...	40,000	5,000	...
London, Hamburg, & Continental Exc. ...	90,000	...	90,000	50,000	...	40,000	Nil	...	90,000	...	50,000
London & South-Western	100,000	...	100,000	100,000	102,500	22,500	...	2,500	...
London and Venezuela	50,000	12,500	62,500	17,500	...	32,500	30,500	...	32,000	500	...
Merchant Bank	250,000	...	250,000	310,000	60,000	...	270,000	20,000	40,000
Mercantile & Exchange	400,000	...	400,000	300,000	...	100,000	257,500	...	142,500	...	42,500
Metropolitan & Provincial Bank, Limited	330,000	35,000	365,000	290,000	...	40,000	291,750	...	73,250	...	33,250
Midland Bank	151,460	...	151,460	132,527	...	18,933	136,314	...	15,146	3,787	...
National of Liverpool	200,000	...	200,000	345,000	145,000	...	337,500	137,500	7,500
New Zealand Banking Corp'n., Limited	60,000	...	60,000	67,500	7,500	...	52,500	...	7,500	...	15,000
North-Western	250,000	125,000	375,000	450,000	200,000	...	587,500	212,500	...	12,500	...
Provincial Banking Corporation	100,000	50,000	150,000	60,000	...	40,000	95,000	...	55,000	...	15,000
Scinde, Punjab, & Delhi	375,000	...	375,000	393,750	18,750	...	253,125	...	121,875	...	140,625
South-Eastern	100,000	...	100,000	100,000	*120,000	20,000	...	20,000	...
Standard Bank of Africa	426,225	...	426,225	409,176	...	17,049	289,867	...	136,358	...	119,309
Union of Ireland, Limited	220,000	...	220,000	188,750	...	33,250	182,500	...	37,500	...	6,250
Totals	11175185	472,500	11637685	12488703	2,243,500	931,482	11831556	198,400	1670129	236,787	1232434
DEDUCT:—Alliance, Consolidated, Imperial, National of Liverpool, North-Western	2250000	125,000	2375000	4090750	1,821,250	...	4000000	1,625,000	...	12,500	228750
Results for the remainder	8925185	347,500	9262685	8413953	422,250	931,482	7831556	359,000	1670129	224,287	1003684

* English Joint-Stock Bank.

THE quotation of gold at Paris is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is $25\frac{1}{2}$ per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is rather more than 1-10th per cent. dearer in Paris than in London.

The course of exchange at New York on London for bills at 60 days' sight is about 110 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. At this rate there is a small profit on the importation of gold from the United States.

Consols are now quoted 89 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 90 ex div., both for money and the 6th instant.

There has been a good amount of business in Colonial Government securities. Canada 6 per Cents. (January and July, 1877-84) fetched 99 8 $\frac{1}{2}$; do. (February and August), 98; 5 per Cents., 86; Mauritius 6 per Cents. (1878), 108 $\frac{1}{2}$; do. (1895), 107; New South Wales 5 per Cents. (1888-92), 93; Queensland 6 per Cents., 106 $\frac{1}{2}$; Victoria 6 per Cents. (April and October), 110.

The shares of the financial companies have been steady. The closing quotations are annexed, viz.:—International Financial, $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ prem.; General Credit, $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 prem.; London Financial, $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem.; Imperial Mercantile Credit, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem.; Crédit Foncier and Mobilier (both old and new shares), $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ prem., ex div.

The amount of Government bills on India, for which tenders will be received at the Bank of England on the 5th of July, will be Rs. 25,00,000 (£250,000).

It appears that, of the £2,250,000 of stock of the Metropolitan District Railway Company, which was issued some months ago, no less than £1,400,000 has already been paid up in full.

Mr. Scott, the City Chamberlain, has invited tenders for a second issue of £200,000 of the £600,000 City Debenture bonds authorized by the Holborn Valley Improvement Act of last Session. The bonds are to be of £1,000, £500, or £100 each, bearing 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest, and the security consists of the coal duties of 4d. per ton and the general revenues of the Corporation. The bonds are to be for not less than 11 years or more than 18.

The prospectus has been issued of the London, Windsor, and Greenwich Hotels Company, with a capital of £500,000, in shares of £25 each, the object being to unite under one management those well-known houses, the Trafalgar, Ship, and Yacht Taverns, Greenwich; Castle and White Hart Hotels, Windsor; Radley's Hotel, Blackfriars; and St. James's Hall and Restaurant. Radley's Hotel is to be rebuilt, and the two hotels at Windsor united. The price to be given for the lease and goodwill of the whole of the properties is £185,000; the furniture, wine, &c., being taken at a valuation.

FIRE AT MESSRS. SOTHEY, WILKINSON, & HODGE'S.

THE book-rooms of Messrs. Sotheby, Wilkinson, & Hodge, with the whole of their valuable contents, were on Thursday destroyed by fire. By this sad accident, one of the most valuable collections of rare and beautiful books to be found in this country has perished. In Messrs. Sotheby's rooms at all times were to be found half a dozen or more splendid or curious libraries, waiting their turn to be sold; and at the time of the fire a great many books from the famous Daniel Library, with almost the whole of the magnificent collection formed by Mr. Offor, were upon the shelves. Unfortunately, many of the treasures now destroyed were unique, and it is very doubtful if even copies of them exist, as possessors are usually very jealous of having any such made. Some of the Bibles and Testaments in Mr. Offor's library contained passages and readings not to be met with in any other versions of the Scriptures. The religious world will therefore be a loser. The following paragraph was written before the fire occurred:—

The magnificent library of George Offor, the well-known editor of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" and his other works, is now being sold at Messrs. Sotheby's sale-rooms in Wellington-street. The catalogue alone extends to 316 pages, and the entire collection comprises nearly 4,000 precious volumes. The principal features of this extraordinary gathering are rare, early versions of the Holy Scriptures, including the most extensive series of English Bibles, Psalters, and Testaments ever offered for sale; numerous editions of the Liturgies of Roman Catholic and Protestant Churches; works of the Fathers, medieval writers, Reformers, Puritans, and Quakers; a remarkable series of the productions of John Bunyan—some of the early editions of which are almost worth their weight in gold; beautifully illuminated Horæ, and other manuscripts of great interest, including a very early copy of the Epistles and Gospels, in English; rare productions from the presses of Caxton, Wynkyn de Worde, Pyson, and other English printers; with a curious assemblage of books written by Dissenters in the last and preceding centuries. Mr. Offor was at one time a bookseller on Tower-hill, and from an early period in life omitted no opportunity which would add to his library, in Grove-street, Hackney, a rare Bunyan or a curious old Bible.

The learned author of "L'Examen du Christianisme," M. Miron, will, it is said, shortly publish another volume, entitled "Séparation du Spirituel et du Temporel."

A French translation of Wilkie Collins's "Armada" is announced to appear as a *feuilleton* to the French paper *Le Temps*.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

MR. MILL AND SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON.*

If the electors of Westminster require any stronger proof of the mental abilities of their candidate than those he has already afforded to the world, the intelligent portion of them will assuredly find it in this last volume of Mr. Mill's. Not only is it the most elaborate and profound of all his philosophical writings, but we are much mistaken if within the same compass there is to be found in any literature a finer masterpiece of metaphysical discussion. Others may have exposed the weak points of a philosophical opponent with equal skill; a few may have as successfully combined strong beliefs of their own with the utmost patience and most unswerving fairness and courtesy towards adversaries whose doctrines they held to be mischievous, sophistical, and contradictory; there have been also a very few indeed who, after overthrowing an opponent's system, have a complete and consistent doctrine to erect in its place. But in no metaphysical work that it has been our happiness to come across have we ever seen this triple excellence displayed in the way in which Mr. Mill has exhibited it in the volume before us. It was no light task to encounter a thinker like Sir William Hamilton on one battlefield of speculation after another, and, unless we are much deceived, to vanquish him in each; neither was it so easy to deal with one of the hardest hitters in literary controversy in a sustained spirit of calmness, courtesy, and even kindness; yet what strikes us as most remarkable is that so much new light should be thrown in these pages on metaphysical science itself. It was not a department of thought on which most people imagined Mr. Mill to have expended much attention, or for which he might reasonably have been supposed to have felt much sympathy. Every one knew him to be a great logician—though even here the metaphysical side of the science was the least regarded in his system. No one doubted his eminence, however much some may have disliked his views, in political economy; but, with the exception of one or two of his "dissertations and discussions," none of his previous works would have led us to imagine him capable of entering the lists against one of the most profound and certainly the most erudite of modern metaphysicians, still less of giving an outline of what we may almost call a complete "system of metaphysics," marking out its leading points with the greatest precision, laying down the true method of investigation, and giving to its problems a life, a reality, and a clearness, divested of all technicality, which has never been equalled since the days of Hume.

It is always interesting to know the estimate which one philosopher forms of another, especially when that estimate proceeds from a mind as large and dispassionate as Mr. Mill's. No two intellects could well be more opposite in their doctrines, tendencies, and habits; but full justice is done to Sir William Hamilton by his adversary. The keen insight, the vast learning and knowledge, "probably never equalled in extent and accuracy, of whatever had been previously thought and written in his department," the force and vigour generally of his style, his quickness in detecting and completeness in exposing the faults of others, and sundry minor excellences of his opponent, are fully appreciated by Mr. Mill. But against these merits we have to set many serious defects, some of which could hardly have escaped careful readers of Sir William Hamilton's writings before, though the greater portion of them, we suspect, have been laid bare for the first time by this penetrating criticism of his philosophy. Had they been apprehended by Mr. Mansel, the recent editor of the *Lectures*, his appreciation of his great teacher and his sympathy with the Hamiltonian doctrine would probably have disarmed his criticism. Mr. Mill, however, with a sincere respect for the great Scotch thinker, has not scrupled at the same time to point out the intellectual defects which must be held very seriously to impair the value of his philosophy. That the latter was made up of scraps from several conflicting metaphysical systems—that many of Sir William Hamilton's doctrines, in consequence, are marked by a contradiction with views expressed in other parts of his works—that some of his leading philosophical beliefs were cherished less because they were true than because they were deemed necessary for the establishment of the doctrines of Natural Religion—that his style is sometimes marked by vagueness of thought and inexactness of expression—are unquestionably grave accusations to be brought against a writer of such unquestioned ability as Sir William Hamilton; yet we cannot but think that after the perusal of these pages our readers will agree with us that every one of them is proved by the amplest testimony. Few will disagree with Mr. Mill's opinion that on the whole Sir William Hamilton would have made an admirable historian of philosophy; in other words, that his natural and acquired gifts fitted him better for collecting and grouping the *materials* of philosophy than for that of handling the *problems* themselves, and that by mistaking the exact line of his vocation he failed in that for which he was not fitted, and never undertook the work for which few, if any, possessed such eminent qualifications.

Metaphysical discussions, as a rule, are not likely to be acceptable to the generality of readers, even when they are handled with the clearness and practised ease of a master-thinker like Mr. Mill. Nor is it possible, in the small space at our command, to give any but the faintest idea of the wide range and copious

detail with which various problems of psychology and logic—we might even add ethics and religion—are treated in these pages. If, however, we must choose samples, we will select two main questions of metaphysics, which might almost be called practical, and about which few persons with even the humblest capacities of reflection can have avoided indulging in some kind of speculation. We speak of the problems respecting the existence of a material world and the freedom of the human will. The first of these affords, according to our author, an admirable illustration of the two methods of all metaphysical inquiry, which he denominates respectively the introspective and the psychological. The former accepts the thoughts and beliefs which are habitually in our minds as ultimate, final, and (for the most part) necessary truths; the latter method pushes the analysis further, and accounts for the character of necessity impressed on such beliefs. Now, as to the conception of the non-ego, or idea of external nature, all philosophers of every school are agreed that it exists in the mind, and the question at issue is whether it exists there as one of its primitive elements, as an original datum of consciousness, or whether as a truth that has grown out of later experience, but which, according to known laws of our mental nature, has become as completely intuitive as our sensations themselves. Of the first opinion, Sir William Hamilton, and the school of innate ideas generally, are the champions; in favour of the second, Mr. Mill propounds some most ingenious and convincing arguments. With him, the limits of our intuitive knowledge are considerably restricted. We are conscious of our feelings and thoughts; in other words, we know them to exist as a fact; and this is pretty nearly all that we do know by the direct teaching of consciousness. So with the almost universal belief in the existence of external objects: that such a knowledge or conviction is in our consciousness now, is no proof that it is an original portion of our mental furniture, and that it existed in our minds when our eyes were first opened to the light. Mr. Mill holds that, on the contrary, it is an acquired belief, the result of associations naturally generated by the order of our sensations and our reminiscences of sensations. His theory is based on two postulates: first, that the human mind, after experiencing *actual* sensations, is capable of forming the conception of *possible* sensations; secondly, that, according to known laws of association, phenomena of certain kinds have a tendency to be thought of together, and from being always thought of together appear incapable of existing separately.

"What (asks Mr. Mill) do we mean when we say that the object we perceive is external to us, and not a part of our own thoughts? We mean that there is in our perceptions something which exists when we are not thinking of it, which existed before we had ever thought of it, and would exist if we were annihilated; and further, that there exist things which we never saw, touched, or otherwise perceived, and things which never have been perceived by man."

Our *present* sensations, accordingly, are fugitive and of little importance; our *possibilities* of sensation are what is really prominent and important, constituting, as they do, our idea of substance, matter, and the external world. Not only, moreover, do we come to regard nature as made up of these groups of possibilities, but we come to recognise a fixed order in our sensations, "a constancy of antecedence and sequence," which gives rise to the ideas of cause and effect. And, once more, we find that these permanent possibilities of sensations belong to other human beings just as much and in the same way as they belong to ourselves. However different their *actual* sensations may be from ours, their possible or expected sensations are the same. In short—

"The world of possible sensations succeeding one another according to laws is as much in other beings as it is in me; it has therefore an existence outside me; it is an external world."

We should have liked to show our readers at length how the same theory is applied by our author to the existence of mind as of matter, of the ego as well as the non-ego. We must content ourselves with the roughest summary of his conclusions. According to Mr. Mill, the idea of self is no more an original deliverance of consciousness than that of matter; we have no conception of mind itself, as distinguished from its conscious manifestations. The belief we entertain that our minds exist when they are not thinking or feeling is simply to be explained by the belief of a permanent possibility of these states. But one remarkable difference between these possibilities in reference to mind and those of matter lies in this:—

"That, while the possibilities of *sensation* which are called outward objects are possibilities of it to other beings as well as to me, the particular series of *feelings* which constitutes my own life is confined to myself; no other sentient being shares it with me."

Subtle as is this analysis of the idea of self, and difficult as it is to answer it, we cannot withhold our opinion that it is unsatisfactory. To have, not our human selves only, but God also, reduced to a "series of thoughts and feelings," does seem to rob both of that sense of unity and personality which, however impossible it may be to express in the vigorous terms of philosophy, will, we believe, continue to be cherished as an instinct even after it has ceased to be a conviction. We acknowledge that Mr. Mill has not for one moment concealed the bearing of his theory, or the arguments for the existence of the Divine Being; he expressly maintains that these are left much where they were, that the belief in the existence of God would still remain as real as the belief in our own, only requiring to be expressed in somewhat different

* An Examination of Sir W. Hamilton's Philosophy, and of the Principal Philosophical Questions Discussed in his Writings. By J. S. Mill. London: Longman & Co.

language. We trust that our author is right, and that feelings of reverence and love could still be felt towards a "series of thoughts and feelings prolonged through eternity" (which, under the new analysis, would be our conception of the Divine Mind); but he will excuse us if we still retain unshaken our conviction that, without an acknowledgment of the objective reality of mind (if not of matter also), any true religious feeling or belief is impossible.

The doctrine of free-will, as most of our readers are aware, was the central idea of the Hamiltonian metaphysics, and one which his able disciple, Mr. Mansel, has carried out still more plainly to its consequences. By both master and pupil the origin of our belief in freedom is placed on the testimony of consciousness; we are conscious either of free-will directly, or of moral responsibility, which implies it. On the other hand, what Mr. Mill's sentiments are on the subject is well known to all students of the latter portion of his "System of Logic;" but what was only lightly touched upon in that work is here discussed at length, and the opposite views are met, more or less satisfactorily, point by point. He begins by clearing the question of all its perplexities and technicalities—a service which no one knows how to render better than Mr. Mill:—

"When we speak of the consciousness of free-will, what is it of which we are really conscious? I am told that whether I decide to do or to abstain, I feel that I could have decided the other way. I ask my consciousness what I do feel, and I find indeed that I feel (or am convinced) that I could have chosen the other course if I had preferred it; but not that I could have chosen one course while I preferred the other."

Acting in opposition to one's preference seems to Mr. Mill only an unprecise mode of speech. We might prefer to take a different course from that which we do actually follow, *apart from its consequences, or from some law which it violates*; but then we have no right to separate the thing itself from its accompaniments. What we do, we do from our will having been determined by the strongest motives: the good man does not differ from the bad in acting contrary to his strongest desires; "it is rather that his desire to do right and his aversion to doing wrong are strong enough to overcome any other desire or aversion which may conflict with them." Mr. Mill, at the same time, is no necessitarian: he rejects the idea, and even the term, of necessity applied to the human will altogether; and here he is unquestionably consistent. While holding that "a volition is a moral effect following the corresponding moral causes, as certainly and invariably as physical effects follow their physical causes," he nowhere intimates any belief that the sequence is a necessary one. Whether the will must follow its motives, he proclaims himself entirely ignorant; all he knows is, that it always *does*. But the argument on which the free-will theory is generally made to rest is the supposed incompatibility of the opposite doctrine with the legitimacy of punishment. Mr. Mill, on the contrary, contends with much ingenuity that punishment rests on the assumption that the will is governed uniformly by motives; that, if punishment exercised no influence on the will by counter-balancing the force of present temptation or acquired bad habits, and thus, if not guiding the object of it into a good path, at all events deterring him from a bad one, it would be unjust to inflict it. Mr. Mill treats as the "veriest of chimeras" the idea that any one holding the necessitarian doctrine should on that ground feel it unjust to punish him for his wrong actions. We are not inclined to agree with Mr. Mill in his light treatment of this objection; still less in his assertion that, if a man "were under the action of such a violent motive that no fear of punishment could have any effect, this would afford a just ground of exemption"—a doctrine which, we believe, would cause many of the more ferocious crimes to pass unpunished. There are other views in this very remarkable chapter, which will provoke opposition to a greater degree, we expect, than any other portions of the work (such, e.g., as the doctrine that the feeling of accountability is only a *consequence* of the experience of punishment, and not an instinct which precedes it); but it must be acknowledged that Mr. Mill always does good service in the discussion of great questions, even when we are little disposed to agree with his conclusions. He has an extraordinary power of clearing the ground, and concentrating attention on the true points of the contest, while his fairness, his clear-sightedness, his seriousness, and his eagerness to discover the truth at all hazards, affords, at all events, a model for his antagonists to imitate.

THE SECRET FRATERNITIES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.*

SECRET societies have been known in most ages of the world. Established with a view, sometimes to the propagation of peculiar doctrines in religion or morals, sometimes to the preservation until more favourable times of revolutionary theories of government, they have not unfrequently wielded powers of the most extraordinary and fearful kind; have threatened the existence of monarchies and churches, and even put in peril the very bases of social order. Though less formidable in the present day than in previous ages, they are not wholly unknown to our own era. The political clubs in France, which did so much towards preparing and directing the revolution of 1848, proved such a source of

uneasiness and danger to the succeeding governments, that it was found necessary to suppress them. In Italy, the Carbonari and the Adelfia exercised, until a recent period, a very important influence on the politics of the young and enthusiastic champions of the national cause; and up to the expulsion of the Bourbons from Naples, the infamous society of the Camorra maintained in the capital of that kingdom a reign of terror which would hardly be credited in England if the records were not too authentic for disbelief. The subject is therefore one of great interest, and we are glad to find that it has been ably, though necessarily somewhat superficially, handled by Mr. Marras, in the Arnold Prize Essay for 1865. This gentleman devotes his attention mainly to the secret societies of the Middle Ages, though he precedes his account of those bodies by a sketch of the various mystical sects and associations of the ancient world. The earliest of these fraternities of which we have any knowledge appear to have been seated in Egypt. It has even been asserted by some that all the secret societies of subsequent ages, down to the brotherhoods of the present day, have been derived in strict lineal descent from the mysterious sects of that dusky and symbol-loving land; and Mr. Marras, though rejecting this theory as an extravagance, relates that "a striking resemblance has been traced in the reception of a Freemason into one of the superior ranks of the craft, and in the initiation of a novice into the mysteries of Isis." It is very probable that, as in other matters, the older nations of the world have communicated their ideas and some of their practices in this respect to younger communities; and such an effect might be specially looked for from the land of Thebes and Memphis, the influence of which on the mythologies and metaphysics of Europe, through the channel of Greece, is every year becoming clearer. "The very name of ancient Egypt," says Mr. Marras, "has become almost synonymous with what is dark or occult, and in later times, the Alexandrian school displayed the same reverence for the mystical which had distinguished its predecessors." The Eleusinian and other ancient Greek mysteries were of Egyptian origin, and one of their characteristics was the secrecy which was enjoined on all who were initiated into them. Zoroaster is said to have introduced the Egyptian mysteries into Persia; secret societies have been traced as far east as China; the Druids of Gaul and Britain had an occult system of religion and morals which was closely guarded from the knowledge of the vulgar; the Jewish Rabbis of former ages affirmed that they possessed in their Cabala a collection of mysterious and awful traditions which they were forbidden to commit to writing; Pythagoras established a secret society at Crotona, in Italy, of which the chief features were the probation of candidates, their division into several classes, with the reservation of particular doctrines supposed to be too holy for the common eye; and the same thing is known to prevail among the Brahmins of India. This tendency rather increased than diminished after the establishment of Christianity. The Gnostics, a sect of Christians, though holding very heretical opinions, gave a great deal of trouble to the Church, against which they directed all the powers of a secret organization; and their doctrines, originally promulgated in the first Christian century, were perpetually re-appearing from age to age, as well as in various countries, always to the annoyance, and sometimes to the alarm, of kings and ecclesiastics. "The popular notion which now exists with regard to the masonic grip," writes Mr. Marras, "was current in the days of Epiphanius as applied to the Gnostics, and it has been suggested that the Gnostic stones or gems were carried about, to be produced by one brother to the other, as credentials of his being a member of the fraternity. All the Gnostic schools pretended that they possessed a secret knowledge direct from Jesus Christ, different from that of the Gospels and Epistles, and superior to them, which they regarded as purely exoteric. Their doctrines were communicated by emblems and symbols, as the Diagramma of the Ophites shows, and in their teachings they probably imitated the ceremonies and probationary trials of Eleusis." The Manichæans were a branch of the Gnostics, or at least received some of their doctrines from that body. These two leading sects were the parents of numberless others, which, during the whole of the Middle Ages, were frequently subjected to cruel persecutions, as obstinate and mischievous heretics. But it was not in Christendom alone that these secret associations sprang up, and spread terror amongst Governments and governed alike. The vast domains of Islam were troubled by far stronger and far more questionable organizations. Under the general designation of Ismailites, or Assassins, a formidable military body arose (strange to say, in Egypt, the old home of these mysterious confederations) in the first Mohammedan century, or the seventh of the Christian era; these men preached the vanity of all religion and the indifference of all human actions, and made a regular practice of murder. The Thugs of India seem to have derived some of their ideas from the Ismailites; but the work of the latter body was apparently performed in a more systematic and powerful manner, and on a much larger scale. In the ninth Christian century, a sect of Ismailites was formed with the design of overthrowing the empire of the Caliphs. After several sanguinary conflicts, these murderous fanatics succeeded in founding, for about three centuries, a dynasty in Egypt, where a secret society was established in a vast and gloomy building at Cairo, called "The House of Wisdom." Subsequently, a Persian adventurer established on the rock of Alamut, in Kuhistan, a central fortress round which the numerous Ismailites of Syria and Persia might gather, and from which he and his successors issued their edicts. The inferior agents of the order, who were not initiated into its peculiar tenets, but were taught to combine belief in

* The Secret Fraternities of the Middle Ages. The Arnold Prize Essay for 1865, read in the Theatre, Oxford, June 21st, 1865. By Americo Palfrey Marras, B.A., late Scholar of Lincoln College. London: Rivingtons.

Islamism with blind devotion to their chiefs, often exhibited the most dauntless courage in their attacks on the Sultans and Caliphs. They were at certain times intoxicated with hashish, and while in that condition were taken into exquisite gardens, where they were entertained with all the sensual gratifications of an Oriental paradise, and, on returning to their proper senses, were informed that they had had a foretaste of that abode of pleasure in which they would eternally remain after death, if they executed without hesitation the orders of their superiors. The emissaries of this dreadful confederacy were scattered through all classes of life, disguised in various ways, and always ready to stab to the heart those whom they were commanded to slay. The Sultan Sandjar headed a powerful army against the leaders of the body, but was terrified, on waking one morning, at finding a dagger stuck into the ground close to his head, and at receiving some days afterwards a note intimating that, had the Ismailites not been well-affected towards him, the dagger would have been planted in his heart. Hereupon he made peace with his mysterious and resistless enemy; and it often happened that the Sultans delivered up their fortresses when ordered to do so by the Chief of the Assassins. The Asiatic branch of this execrable association retained its power for a hundred and twenty years, and was then annihilated by the Moguls.

From the East Mr. Marras takes a wide leap into Westphalia, and describes the famous Vehmgerichte formed there in the dark ages, and existing in full force for a long period. These secret tribunals for the trial of offences and the condemnation of ill-doers came at length to be recognised as legal courts, and, though acting furtively, often cruelly, and always with the vice of terrorism, they undoubtedly served in many cases as a wholesome check on the lawless brutality and oppression of the feudal barons. The Emperors paid great respect to them, and their power was seldom disputed. A similar body at one time existed in Sicily, called the Beati Paoli, and its memory was long revered by the Sicilian population.

Of the Knights Templars Mr. Marras gives some interesting details. He considers that the charges of immorality brought against them are not distinctly proved, though a grave suspicion must be entertained; but there seems to be no doubt that they denied Christ, profaned the cross, and worshipped an idol which is supposed to have represented their conception of the Deity. The Grand Master, in his examination during the persecutions of Philip the Fair of France, admitted the denial of Christ, but denied the accusation of infamous vices. It has been supposed that the repudiation of the Christian faith was merely a form, with a certain mystical intent, not very clearly to be understood; but it seems more probable that the Knights had imbibed some of the principles of Mohammedanism during their stay in the East, and had adopted a kind of Monotheism as their rule of faith. The ill-fortune of the Crusaders during their later expeditions, as well as the being brought in contact with various forms of belief, had apparently introduced amongst them a spirit of religious scepticism, and it is known that many were inclined to follow the religion of the Arabian Prophet, which they had originally undertaken to combat. One of the traditions concerning the Knights Templars is very singular. It is said that those who escaped assembled in one of the Hebrides, and there reorganized their fraternity; and some remains of the order, Mr. Marras thinks, may still be traced in Scotland.

Freemasonry and Rosicrucianism are examined in separate sections of this essay; and the conclusion at which the author arrives is that secret fraternities are the results of a rude and imperfect civilization, of which the evils have been scarcely outweighed by the advantages. Mr. Marras writes with judgment and impartiality, and we should be glad to see from his pen a more extended work on the same subject.

TRANSLATIONS OF GOETHE AND DANTE.*

THE accomplished scholar who has, in former publications, given us such faithful and elegant versions of the Odes of Horace and of the minor poems of Dante, now furnishes a new translation of Goethe's profound and beautiful dramatic allegory, which is at least as good as any of its predecessors. Whether it is actually required, for the gratification and information of ordinary English readers, that we should possess twenty or thirty versions of "Faust," a dozen or so of the "Divina Commedia," and perhaps as many of the "Iliad," which may convey a tolerable notion of the sense of their originals, but can never, by the very necessity of the case, afford a precise reproduction of the rhythmic harmonies of each immortal song, is a question upon which we have lately made some remarks. This task, however, is usually performed as a pure labour of love, as a grateful tribute to the genius of the foreign classic, or as an agreeable exercise in the diction and versification of our native language. The tastefully ornamented volume which contains Mr. Theodore Martin's English version of the First Part of "Faust," will be acceptable to the worshippers of Goethe as a very handsome offering in honour of that mighty and fascinating, but serene and healthy, genius. With regard to the merits of the translation, it is quite needless for us to say, that, as Mr. Theodore Martin has a perfect acquaintance with both the German and English languages, he has succeeded in rendering the full

meaning of Goethe's text, though he has, in frequent instances, been compelled by metrical difficulties to insert such redundant words as must sadly enfeeble and dilute the proper phrase. In reading, however, his version of the long soliloquy in the first scene of the drama, where the disappointed student of all human sciences, meditating upon the loneliness and barrenness of his life, turns to the cabalistic records of the ancient magical lore, and prepares to summon the unseen Spirits of Creation to answer his pining request for more knowledge and power, we cannot but feel that Mr. Theodore Martin has failed to preserve the lyrical effects of some of the sublimest and sweetest passages of the original,—which is essentially of a lyrical character throughout the whole scene. For example, let us take the moment when Faust has just opened his favourite book of mystic philosophy, the "Aurea Catena" of Michael Nostradamus, and has begun to pore over the sign of the Macrocosm, or Universe of Nature. In the German, we find that the sudden change in the current of his thoughts and feelings, which is instantaneously produced by the sight of this inspiring symbol, finds a true lyrical expression by the immediate commencement of a wholly different form of verse. Instead of the somewhat monotonous beat of alternate rhymes in lines of equal length, which has been maintained hitherto in his recital of the dull miseries of his previous condition, we are charmed and enraptured by the following burst of exquisite music, with a melodious cadence, pause, and swell, which are ineffably delicious to the ear:—

"Ich fühle junges, heil'ges Lebensglück
Neuglühend mir durch Nerv' und Adern rinnen.
War es ein Gott, der diese Zeichen schrieb,
Die mir das inn're Toben stillen,
Das arme Herz mit Freude füllen,
Und mit geheimnisvollem Trieb
Die Kräfte der Natur rings um mich her enthüllen?"

Now for the English version of this passage, as Mr. Theodore Martin does it:—

"Ha! as I look, what rapture gushes
Through every pulse and nerve! Amain
A thrill of life—young, glorious—flushes
With sudden glow each nerve and vein.
Was it a God who traced these signs,
Which thus my inward tumult still,
The poor heart with such transport fill,
And show revealed in clearest lines
The powers of Nature to my sight?"

Such is the utterly inadequate and unworthy result of any pretension to transfer from one language into another the peculiar felicities of sound, finely corresponding with the play of thought and feeling, in the original poem. It is well-nigh an impossible problem. Mr. Theodore Martin would solve it if he could. In the more level parts of this composition he has got on very well. But we are by no means content with a translator who has spoiled, here and there, by the mere padding and stretching of his verse, not a few of the most impressive touches of genuine poetry. Faust, according to Goethe, exclaims in his despair, "Oh, Infinite Nature, where can I take hold of Thee? Oh, where are thy breasts? Oh, Fountains of all Life, Heaven and Earth hang upon you, my withered heart rises towards you, for you are flowing, you are giving suck; and must I pine here in vain?" The bold simplicity and energy of this language, as of a passionate child, will be sadly missed in Mr. Theodore Martin's translation:—

"Oh, what a show! But woe is me!
'Tis but a show. Where, where shall I,
Infinite Nature, grasp at thee?
Say, where is that I shall hold thee by?
Ye breasts, where are ye? You, ye springs
Of all that lives, whereon depend
Both earth and heaven, as to a friend
To you the blighted bosom clings:—
Ye well forth bounteous nourishment divine,
Yet I for you am doom'd so bootlessly to pine!"

This will never do; Mr. Theodore Martin can hardly be satisfied with it himself. Nor will he, upon a mature revision of his work, be disposed to leave unlopped-off such an excrescence as the following, upon the last line of the Earth-Spirit's wondrous metaphysical song:—

"Thus at Time's whizzing loom I ply,
And weave the vesture of God, that thou know'st him by!"

The Rev. Prebendary Ford has thought fit, in this year of the sixcentenary celebration of Dante's birth, to call upon us English, "as a highly-educated people," to study and appreciate the old Florentine's immortal poem. It is certainly worth studying, at any time, if we would gain a comprehensive notion of the intellectual, political, and religious condition of Europe in the Middle Ages. The "Divina Commedia," so named from the common mystery-plays with which a theatrical company of friars would amuse and edify the marvelling crowd, furnishing an exhibition of Hell, Purgatory, and Heaven, arranged upon three stages or scaffolds one above another, is a curious and interesting panorama of the moral world, as conceived by a highly-educated Italian gentleman of the thirteenth century, a virtuous citizen, a devout Catholic, and a diligent scholar of St. Thomas Aquinas. Such a work as this, even if it were not one of the grandest monuments of poetic and literary power, would as an historical study be suffi-

* Faust; a Dramatic Poem. By Goethe. Translated into English Verse by Theodore Martin. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons.

The Inferno of Dante; translated in the Metre of the Original by James Ford, A.M., Prebendary of Exeter. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

ciently important. Mr. Ford's version, though intelligent and faithful, is not, we think, superior to some others—notably those of Wright, Mrs. Ramsay, and Longfellow—in the qualities of expression and style. He claims, indeed, to have succeeded in reproducing the *terza rima*, from which less adventurous translators have been content to abstain. But we are more and more convinced by every attempt of this kind that it is just as impossible to render the effect of an Italian triplet or stanza, as of a Greek hexameter, in the English language; because our English rhymes are mostly of one syllable, whereas the Italian rhymes are double. Lord Byron and Mrs. Barrett Browning have shown that an English or monosyllabic system of triple alternate rhymes is a very feasible form of versification; but it needs only to read a few lines of any page of Dante's text, which Mr. Ford has considerably printed opposite the corresponding pages of his translation, to tell him who has ears to hear that the Italian *terza rima* is a very different sort of thing. The select and solemn chime, as of clear-sounding church bells still uttering their measured melody above the din of traffic and of strife in some ancient cathedral city, belongs to the poem of Dante, and is not audible, so far as we can distinguish, in the metrical imitations of any of his translators. It is a question, after all, whether the English reader is not better served by the pure and stately blank verse of Cary, or by the closer and minuter translation of Mr. Rossetti, or by the simple prose of Dr. John Carlyle; the last of whom has plainly avowed that it is quite impracticable to transfer into our language the deep rhythmic force and beauty of the original. Mr. Ford's volume may be useful to those who are preparing to read the Italian for the first time; but it would have been much more useful if he, like Mr. Cary, had furnished the requisite notes explanatory of a hundred local or personal allusions, which nobody, without a special knowledge of the mediæval history of the Tuscan cities, can be expected to recognise at the present day.

THE ENGLISH SCHOOLROOM.*

THE subject of education engrosses so much of public attention in our days, that a work on this topic is sure not to pass unnoticed, and it depends only on the merits or demerits of the book whether the author has reason to rejoice at this circumstance or not. We do not talk much in England of the liberty of the press, because we are in full possession of that right; but we talk and write much about education, because we cannot yet boast of a perfect development of the educational machinery. The Rev. Mr. Thomson, "sometime head-master of St. John's Foundation School, London," is one of those who have something to say on this important topic, and we eagerly took up his book to see whether he belongs to the few sensible writers on education, or to the happy and self-satisfied majority. We must declare at the outset, that the title of the book is, if not entirely a misnomer, at all events very defective, and apt to mislead; for the author's educational plan would involve such heavy expenses that it could only be carried out practically in a family of very affluent circumstances. The proper title would therefore have been "The English Nobleman's Schoolroom," or, since nobility and wealth are no longer considered as social synonyms, "The English Millionaire's Schoolroom." The author, who is a great advocate for private tuition, especially from the years of seven to fourteen, recommends the organization of a regular educational staff, which is to consist of a tutor and a governess, who "must work together and for good, in more senses than one." This united work he calls the "natural system," by which he probably means that tutor and governess are respectively to represent father and mother. After the youthful period is over, assistant masters are recommended, and finally the author is anxious to introduce the office of *παιδαγωγός*, or "guardian," who is to superintend the boys in all their doings out of the hours of study (his office thus corresponding rather with the primitive function of the pedagogue), and to teach them, besides, swimming, riding, &c. In fact, the guardians are to be the "physical instructors," whilst the tutors are the "mental instructors." Girls are, of course, to have their female "guardians," whom the author, oddly enough, pleases to style "duennas." But, if an objection be made on the score of increased expense—for the school-room is also to be fitted up in a magnificent style—the author candidly tells us that "he is considering the best methods of carrying out the education of a family, regardless of objections on the score of expense or inconvenience." He does so for two simple reasons: firstly, that those "who can afford such arrangement" should not shun the expense; and secondly, that those who cannot afford the expense should shift as best they can. It is, however, easy to see that, if the Rev. Mr. Thomson's educational plan is to be adopted at all, it must be adopted *in toto*, and that, if one link is missing, the whole machinery is worthless.

We could not, of course, reproach the former head-master of St. John's Foundation School, for having planned an educational scheme exclusively for the "upper ten thousand" (except on the ground that it might have been fair to intimate the fact in his title-page), if his scheme, such as it is, had been complete in itself. John Locke wrote his famous "Thoughts upon Education" avowedly for aristocratic young gentlemen; but there is this difference between him and Mr. Thomson, that the views on education

put forward by the author of the "Essay concerning Human Understanding" are founded on such deep insight into human nature in general that they admit of a wide application, and have consequently become the foundation of a modern school of educationists; while, on the other hand, the practical application of Mr. Thomson's educational scheme is by no means perfect. Hardly any of the useful suggestions are original, whilst those which are new are mostly of a futile character. The author does not content himself with saying which subjects ought to be learned, and when they should be taught; he gives also "directions for use," by recommending certain books and methods for the respective subjects; in doing which, he betrays either partiality or ignorance. Thus, to take only one example out of many, he warns us against the crude form system of Professor Hewitt Key, as being recondite and "wholly unfitted for practical tuition." In this the author is thoroughly mistaken. The practicability of the crude form system has been fully established, and its well-tested results are the best proofs of its superiority over the old-fashioned method. The "root and stem" system has, besides, been made available even for very youthful students since the publication of Mr. John Robson's admirable "Constructive Latin Exercises," which have gone through four or five editions, we believe. The crude form system has been introduced into several large schools with the greatest success, and that it is not more extensively used is certainly not owing to any defect in the system itself, but to the ignorance or laziness of teachers, who cannot throw off the shackles of the old system. Besides, the remark of the author with reference to the crude form system, "that not unfrequently a partially imperfect plan is found to work much better than a model theory," is in flagrant contradiction with another assertion, viz., that "the truest is always the safest, yea, even the shortest, method of instruction."

One very good feature we have, however, found in Mr. Thomson's production, which took us rather by surprise, it being thoroughly inconsistent with the author's estimate of our Continental friends. He allots a large share in his educational scheme to the two principal languages of the continent of Europe—French and German—in spite of his pronouncing a most severe and unqualified judgment on "foreign schools," which he describes as "systematic contrivances for educating a boy in all that he should not learn, and in very little that he should. Nowhere," he continues, "is the tutor more wanted than on the Continent, and that to ward off and defeat the multiplied evils arising from the covert infidelity, rampant superstition, want of discipline, moral vileness, and pretentious but very shallow tuition, which are the characteristics of foreign schools." The parent, or a tried tutor, should be, according to the Rev. Mr. Thomson's opinion, the constant guardian of boys during their residence in foreign schools, if it is desired that they should return "clean and pure in body and mind; unsteeped in deliberate deceit; uncontaminated by selfish cunning; untaught to play, at one and the same time, the part of the profligate and the hypocrite." Recent judicial investigations have undoubtedly shown that a very dreadful amount of moral corruption is sometimes to be found in French and Belgian schools under the direction of Roman Catholic priests: nevertheless, we cannot but regard Mr. Thomson's condemnation of Continental seminaries as too sweeping and indiscriminate. But, granting that the picture is not overdrawn, would it not be more judicious to exclude the modern languages entirely from the curriculum of our boys, and so keep ourselves as distant as possible from the nations of the European continent? Schools form the moral reflection of a nation; and, if "covert infidelity, rampant superstition, and moral vileness" be the constant and inveterate evils of Continental schools, the whole of the Continent must, as a rule, be peopled by profligates, hypocrites, and ignorant men. We did not expect such a statement from an author who pretends to be "free from prejudice." It is true that there are very inferior scholastic institutions abroad; but some excellent Protestant establishments are to be found in Germany and Switzerland, and many of our countrymen who have been entirely or partly educated there, and who rank now very high in their respective professions, still speak of them with reverence and affection.

One more remark we must make before we conclude our notice. It has reference to the author's advice to let young ladies participate in the Greek studies of their brothers. We are well aware that this course is, in our day of paradoxes, not unfrequently recommended by Greek scholars, or by those who affect to be Greek scholars; but we are convinced that such a proceeding would only produce a female generation with pale cheeks and blue stockings. It is quite enough if young ladies master the modern languages, the rudimentary parts of the applied sciences, and, above all, the usual accomplishments, as well as the practical management of a household.

ONLY A CLOD.*

THERE is no pleasanter day-dream than that which confers on the dreamer the imaginary possession of boundless wealth. Probably few persons of at all a sentimental disposition have not allowed themselves the harmless gratification of wandering through the realm of fancy with an inexhaustible purse, gaining every heart by their lavish munificence, and especially bestowing endless largesses upon their friends. It is so economical a method of

* The English Schoolroom; or, Thoughts on Private Tuition, Practical and Suggestive. By the Rev. A. F. Thomson, B.A., Lincoln College, Oxford; sometime Head Master of St. John's Foundation School. London: Sampson Low, Son, & Co.

* Only a Clod. By the Author of "Lady Audley's Secret," &c. Three vols. London: John Maxwell & Co.

discharging a debt of gratitude, or of giving vent to an urgent impulse of affection. But it is difficult to support the strain on the imagination for any length of time, and the dreamer soon wearies of his fictitious riches, and returns with relief to the consideration of his actual condition. It is possible that the man who really finds himself lifted at once from penury to wealth may experience a somewhat similar sensation, and sometimes grow tired of carrying the golden gifts which fortune has showered upon him. A private soldier who suddenly steps into the possession of thirty thousand a year may well deserve our pity as well as our envy, and this lesson Miss Braddon has taken considerable pains to inculcate in her present novel. The will of an eccentric uncle metamorphoses Francis Tredethlyn, servant in ordinary to an ensign in a marching regiment, into a millionaire, and he is called upon to take a place in refined society, for which he is conscious that he is little qualified. Nature had been very kind to him, and we are told that he would have made a handsome gladiator, a noble-looking brigand, or a glorious sporting farmer; but it appears that no power upon earth could have transformed him into "a gentleman" in the modern acceptation of the word. Therefore, as is natural, he does not always feel at his ease in the new world into which he is introduced by his money, and at times a painful suspicion haunts him that he really is what some of his acquaintances style him, "Only a Clod." A designing lady, of an ancient but decayed family, Julia Desmond by name, kindly assists in his difficulties, and succeeds in wringing an offer from his gratitude; but all the while his heart is engrossed by its worship of Maude Hillary, an ideal banker's exquisite daughter. That nursing of wealth is engaged to Harcourt Lowther, the whilom master of Francis Tredethlyn, and she imagines that she is loved for her intrinsic worth alone by that fascinating warrior. It is not wonderful that she once loved him, for he is represented as "a remarkably handsome man, an elegant young man, a very agreeable and accomplished gentleman," who could play "upon two or three different instruments," and paint "in half-a-dozen different styles," and ride across country "to the astonishment of burly Leicestershire squires," and shoot and play cricket to perfection, and speak "three or four modern languages," and do many other things worthy of renown. Altogether an excellent hero of romance, but unfortunately utterly heartless and quite unprincipled. Of his demerits, however, Maude has no suspicion, and so she enshrines him in her heart, and worships him there, greatly to her delight and her father's dissatisfaction. She flings about the paternal money in an utterly reckless manner, and enjoys her life to the full, only indulging now and then in a little pleasing sadness of which Mr. Lowther is the central idea, till one evening on which she discovers that her father is on the verge of bankruptcy and suicide. To rescue him, she asks Tredethlyn for twenty thousand pounds, and the result is the betrayal of that gentleman's feelings towards her, and the consequent breaking off of his engagement with Miss Desmond. A marriage ultimately ensues between Maude and her wealthy lover, and, as he is utterly devoted to her, and is a splendid animal, with the additional merit of possessing a truly noble soul, she soon begins to feel attached to him, although he does not lower his voice and his laugh to the tone demanded by society, and is perpetually treading on ladies' trains, or upsetting plates into their laps.

All would go well with her married life, were it not for the presence of Mr. Lowther, her former lover, who sets deliberately to work to ruin her husband, partly out of revenge, partly with the hope of future gain. The unsuspecting Tredethlyn is persuaded that his wife does not care for him, and is induced to drown his sorrow in the bowl, or to strive to forget it in society of a more than doubtful character. Yielding unsuspectingly, and somewhat improbably, to his tempter's wiles, he revolves in the well-known vortex of dissipation, and bids fair to figure as one of its notorious wrecks, when accident, and a plump little heiress, Rosa Grunderson, open his eyes to the perils of his position and the true character of his perfidious friend. Just about the same time, he has been fortunate enough to discover his cousin, Susan Tredethlyn, the playmate of his childhood, and the first love of his early years, who had disappeared from her home a little before his succession to his wealth, and for whom he had been long searching in vain. To provide her, whom he finds steeped in poverty, with a comfortably furnished cottage at Richmond, and to go and spend hours with her in it, is to him as natural as it is to say nothing on the subject to his wife; so that Mr. Lowther is able to contrive a little scene, the result of which is to make Maude believe that her husband is faithless to her. Then a general confusion arises, and she quarrels with Tredethlyn, and he, after revenging himself upon his treacherous friend, takes what he intends to be a final leave of her. It is needless to dwell on the reconciliation which, of course, takes place, the sad fate of the villain, and the ultimate reward of the hero, whose wife renders him fit for the best society by making him dip incessantly into "ponderous histories of different ages," and "frisk among the records of the Reign of Terror," so that at last it is impossible "for people to say that the lovely Mrs. Tredethlyn had allied herself to a man who was only a clod." The moral of the story is unimpeachable, and in this respect Miss Braddon's last novel may be styled her best; but we cannot help thinking it also her weakest. The characters are somewhat commonplace, the situations are not startling, nor are they particularly attractive, and the descriptions are not as lively as were many in her former books. The scene in which the banker is induced, by his daughter's entreaties, to give up his idea of committing suicide is unreal, and there is an air of

decided improbability about the diary in which Mr. Roderick Lowther writes down his feelings and his plans respecting Susan Tredethlyn. On the other hand, the story is well written, and some of the minor characters, such as Miss Grunderson, the rich market-gardener's impetuous daughter, and the various ladies with whom Susan Tredethlyn lived at different times, are amusing and humorous.

A CLERGYMAN ON COUNTRY BUILDING.*

How is it that clergymen are so often incapable of writing grammatical and intelligible English? They receive a good education at public schools and colleges, and their occupation is so far literary that they are required to write a discourse once a week, expounding various niceties of morals and faith. Considerable command over all the resources of expression ought certainly to be possessed by those who are charged with the guidance of a set of trusting people, and a slip of style becomes a very serious matter when it may perhaps lead to a slip of conduct in those who hear it. Fancy a country congregation relying on their pastor to show them the right path in all those difficult questions which constitute the sore trials of village life;—how far Mrs. A. would be justified in resenting the "aggravations" of Mrs. B.; to what extent county balls are allowable, or whether they are utterly sinful; whether or not Farmer Green may, consistently with Christian forgiveness and respect for superiors, refuse to take off his hat to Squire Brown, in consequence of the Squire's having vindictively opposed him in that matter of the right of way; whether Giles the cow-boy may lawfully eat apples in church-time; whether yawning in church is an eighth deadly sin, or only bad manners; whether flirting is permissible within certain limits, or is to be condemned within any limits; and other such matters, touching on the practical occasions of daily life. Fancy a congregation, we say, looking to their clergyman for instruction, in a general sense, on these and similar issues, and finding that they cannot understand a word of what is told them! Conceive the horror of afterwards discovering that they have gone wrong for want of clear direction; Mrs. A. openly affronting Mrs. B., and Farmer Green standing in the presence of Squire Brown as inflexible as William Tell before Gesler, and all on a false inference from ambiguous phraseology! A sign-post at a cross-road with the names rendered illegible by half a century's rain, or a street-corner in an unknown neighbourhood with no name at all painted up, is bad enough; but what is either of these annoyances to an incoherent clergyman? A mere trifle. And yet we fear that this tremendous calamity is of frequent occurrence, particularly in the country. For some reason, difficult to discover or imagine, clergymen very frequently do not write good English. Perhaps they are thinking too much of matter to regard form; perhaps they have a contempt for form as a vanity, like wearing coloured clothes or jewellery, or growing a moustache, or visiting the theatre, or dancing at a ball. Be that as it may, however, the fact has struck us on several occasions; and we fear it must often be a heavy trial to the devout.

Now, here is the Rev. Mr. Scratton, doubtless a very worthy gentleman, with brave ideas in his head on a great many subjects. Mr. Scratton feels a special interest in the method of building country cottages and other houses. He has got something to say on what he conceives to be the best mode of construction, and he publishes a Manual on the subject, of which an instalment is in our hands. He gives us a certain amount of description and a certain number of plates, and everything ought to be as clear as an estimate; yet we cannot make it out. That the reader may judge for himself whether the fault herein is our own or the reverend author's, we will quote a passage or two. We should premise that Mr. Scratton speaks of his Manual as having been composed "after frequent attempts at the expression of sundry views upon the subject of building, as introductory to the following designs;" so that it may be he is conscious of the fact that expression is not his strong point. Assuredly his readers will be conscious of it in perusing this little publication. Having stated, with tolerable distinctness, that he has in his mind certain general principles of plan and construction to which he would fain confine himself, but that he has nevertheless submitted one plan of an ordinary cottage, together with two other designs embodying conceptions of his own, he proceeds:—

"Therefore the Editor trusts he does not miscalculate new converts to his principles, until time show whether, in some cases, buildings that have become necessary for the enterprising and Christian philanthropist in these our times, might or not with advantage take after these models; and those he found or not to whom the *hypæthral centre* (may it be termed?), or sort of *clerestory*, it has been here endeavoured to illustrate, might supply a few hints for consideration, where it should be desired to impart more expansion and effect to interiors on a small scale than such can otherwise possess."

That is not at all a bad effort, if the object be the concealment of the writer's meaning. We do not envy the state of mind of those who have to listen, week after week, to sermons conceived and expressed in such a manner. Here is another flower from the same garden:—

"But the reader is invited to consider also the possibility of rendering such a cottage, with some slight and not conspicuous altera-

* A Manual of Country Building, in Advocacy of Certain Principles of Plan and Construction to meet the Times. By the Rev. G. Scratton. London: Rivington.

tions and additions, a residence for a family above the lowest in the social scale, superior to what they can always hear of for much more expense."

Why should "a family above the lowest in the social scale" be "superior to what they can always hear of for much more expense"? And what is it that they can always hear of on those terms? But perhaps that is not what Mr. Scratton means; so we proceed to cull a third flower:—

"The third design presents a building which contains one good-sized general day-room for its inmates, in this case supposed to be half-a-dozen respectable young men, of what class irrelevant now; probably one of superior position and character, to be invested with some sort of control over the rest for their advantage, as well as orderly conduct."

Bless us! Mr. Scratton must here be contemplating something more than the building of country cottages; he must be elaborating some model scheme of society and government—some rival to the Republic of Plato, or the Utopia of Sir Thomas More. He proposes to erect a building to be inhabited by half-a-dozen respectable young men. What class these young men are to belong to seems to be irrelevant at present, but it surely cannot be irrelevant for long, since, whether high or low, the class is to be invested with "some sort of control" (we hope not a despotic or perfectly arbitrary control) over all other classes. To be sure, this is intended for the advantage as well as the orderly conduct of the other classes; yet we hardly like the idea of yielding up our liberties to six young men, however respectable. But, possibly, Mr. Scratton means the word "one" to refer to "young men," and not to "class," though the latter is the true antecedent. Still, if so, how easy it would have been to make such a meaning clear!

Some of Mr. Scratton's ideas are as odd as his expressions. For instance, we read of a "ground-plan, containing living-room, sixteen feet long, twelve feet wide (with corners bevelled to rather obviate damp, but is not confidently insisted on); stair-lobby and stairs," &c. Why damp is only to be "rather" obviated in a model cottage we cannot imagine, and we should say that, if this is a point "not confidently insisted on," it is clear that Mr. Scratton has never had rheumatism, and is sceptical of its existence in others.

We conclude with a grand burst of fireworks, of which, we must confess, the smoke exceeds the brilliance:—

"ASPECT AND PLACING THE HOUSE UPON THE GROUND.—This is a point which the Editor would not have overlooked by his readers for want of some brief notice, mistrustful, he confesses, that, if London were to be built over again, the evil of family day-rooms, through whose windows the sun never shone, would be foreseen in time enough, and made to cease. He would then first humbly suggest a rule; viz., that a house in the country should be placed on the ground pertaining to it, with all due attention, so as to leave the spaces about it as well-shaped and as little spoiled or overshadowed as possible.

"Next let it be considered on which side of the building the rooms are situated, for which sunny and warm aspects would be requisite, and which side those offices the better for shade or coolness, and the position be regulated accordingly."

This surely defies all analysis. If Mr. Scratton builds houses as he constructs sentences, we should certainly not like to live in them, for fear they should tumble into chaos about our ears.

SHORT NOTICES.

The Great Schools of England: an Account of the Foundation, Endowments, and Discipline of the Chief Seminaries of Learning in England. By Howard Staunton. With Illustrations. (Sampson Low, Son, & Marston.)—Eton, Winchester, Westminster, St. Paul's, Charter-House, Merchant Taylors', Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury, are the chief schools described by Mr. Staunton. He traces the history of each, describes the discipline, the course of instruction, the general arrangements, government, endowment and revenue, &c., and appends a list of the eminent men who, by receiving their education there, have given additional lustre to the institution. The work is so full of practical information on the details of school-life at these great foundations that it may be regarded as a guide-book to all who contemplate sending their sons thither. For all such the volume must have a solid value, as enabling them to compare the several systems prevailing at different places, and to determine beforehand which offers the greatest advantages. The subject, however, is interesting to all intelligent Englishmen, and the book has therefore a general attraction beyond the circle which it specially addresses. The public schools of England are closely associated with the history and the literature of our land. They have been the intellectual cradles of many of our statesmen and warriors, and of not a few of our poets and prose-writers; and, though now in some respects obsolete in their arrangements and methods, they still exercise an important influence, and have of late engaged very much of the attention of Parliament and the press. Mr. Staunton enters at some length, in his Introduction, into the questions raised by the Report of the Royal Commissioners last year as to the management and educational features of these schools, and the necessity of modifying the system established during the middle ages, so as to render it more in harmony with the requirements of our own times. He is a great admirer of the public school system, and thinks that, for the upper classes—for those youths who in time are destined to become statesmen, ecclesiastics, and naval and military officers—no other species of school would, on the whole, be so well adapted; for he contends that the chief object of the aristocracy and the governing classes is, not to be the most highly educated, but

the most cultivated for practical purposes. Yet he makes some formidable admissions with regard to the shortcomings and positive errors of the endowed schools of England—so formidable, indeed, as to militate very strongly against the general praise which he confers on them. Though allowing them to remain intact in the main, he would, however, introduce several reforms. He would give more attention than is now given to modern languages, and would allow of a greater variety of modern subjects in the course of tuition, though without compromising the old supremacy of the classics. He would do away with fagging, and would greatly mitigate, if not entirely abolish, corporal punishment. As regards the country generally, and apart from the endowed schools, he desires to see the formation of academies and seminaries corresponding to the "Gymnasia" and the "Realschulen" of the Germans. A Minister of Public Instruction, and the establishment of a National University, are also among the measures which Mr. Staunton recommends for placing England on an equal footing with some of the nations of the Continent in the matter of educational training.

Spring and Autumn. By the Author of "Morning Clouds." (Longmans.)—The first sentence of this touching little tale propounds a curious question:—"Did you really never know a case of people who loved each other tenderly, doing each other irreparable harm?" The writer goes on to inform us that "it is not an uncommon thing," and that, "amongst all the tragedies that this world covers up with decent calm, you may often find it." We hope this is an exaggeration; but it cannot be denied that such things do occur, and they offer singular subjects for the student of human nature. "Spring and Autumn" is a story based on this sad truth, and we have little hesitation in saying that it is the production of one belonging to that sex which is the most likely to perceive such a strange and unhappy tendency in human nature. The work is marked with the quick observation of details, the fine perception of the subtleties of female nature, the tenderness, the pathos, and the prevailing tone of resignation and sadness, which seem almost inseparable from the writings of women. The heroine—or perhaps we ought rather to say, one of the heroines—is Maida Hatton, a maiden lady of some thirty-six or thirty-seven, who lives with her brother Peter on the borders of the New Forest. She has been for years attached to her cousin, Cyril Rennie, a naval officer, and she has always thought that, if he marries any one, he will marry her, as soon as his prospects in life are sufficiently good. But at length she settles down quietly into keeping house for her bachelor brother, who, having in early life been deprived by death of the lady with whom he had exchanged hearts, has turned his attention exclusively to literature. They invite a young ward of theirs—one Isabel Crewe—to live with them; and it unfortunately happens that Cyril Rennie, while on a visit, falls in love with this fascinating young rosebud of eighteen, to the great pain and grief of Maida. Isabel is equally taken with the captain, and, though there is no positive engagement between them, their flirtations attract the attention of the whole household, particularly of a severe elderly lady, the aunt both of the Hattons and of Rennie. This exemplary individual—a really conscientious woman in her way, but wanting in sympathy—brings matters to such a disagreeable pass by her questionings and observations that the captain is glad when he finds himself appointed to the command of a ship. While away in the West Indies, he is nursed through a dangerous malady by a fat, kind-natured, but rather vulgar widow, whom in gratitude he marries; and the intimation of this fact in a letter plunges both Maida and Isabel into an agony of sorrow. Isabel, moreover, is already dying of consumption and of a broken heart at Mentone, where she has been taken by her guardians for the warm air; but Cyril sees her once more on his way home from the West Indies, and his wife nurses her, and receives her last confessions of disappointed love. This, with a very slight and rather unnecessary episode concerning Mr. Hatton and a young lady whom he ultimately marries, is the whole of the story, which, it must be confessed, is simplicity itself. Its charm lies in the pathos of the conception and execution, and in the sober repose of the style. The contrast between the grave, tender, saddened affection of Maida, the grown woman, and the impulsive, girlish, romantic passion of Isabel, is delicately and beautifully delineated; the exhibition of motives and dissection of feelings is often very subtle; the incidental bits of description are charmingly harmonized with the general tone of the story, while kept in due subjection to the more important elements; and the concluding scenes are full of quiet power. We would suggest, however, that the remorse of Maida for having stood in the way of Isabel's happiness by some thoughtless words which she has one day uttered, is rather overdrawn. But an exaggerated sense of conscience is almost always to be found in the stories of lady writers.

Ida Clifford; or, the Voice of God in a Dream. By Arthur Montgomery. (Marlborough & Co.)—We do not often take up a story, and find the whole of the first chapter devoted to a rambling, semi-metaphysical, semi-religious discourse. Mr. Montgomery, however, treats his readers to an introductory essay on the subject of dreams, written in a style, and with allusions, which we suppose are intended to be devout, but which to us are very shocking, in the presumptuous, chatter-box tone in which sacred names and subjects are handled, and in a certain way which the writer has of introducing the most solemn issues as a flourish of trumpets before his story, as if a penny showman were to conduct a religious service outside his booth as a preliminary to performing "George Barnwell." The style is turgid and commonplace in the last degree, besides being often absurdly inaccurate. Thus we read:—"I could tell of the realization of such dreams as might well chill one's very life-blood, and make the affrighted heart forget to beat; of warnings neglected, which would fill the listener, as well as the reciter, with amazement and horror unspeakable; but I forbear. Those that I shall relate in the course of my narrative are not of that appalling description, but were in their consequences fraught with joy and life eternal to a precious soul, whose pure and spotless memory might justly claim a hallowed shrine in the heart of a loved and only brother." We submit that this is not the style in which to write sensation novels; and, considered as a matter of composition, quite as little do we

admire the following:—"Medicine is not false because its crucible is often mixed by empirical hands. Nor are all dreams necessarily the vain phantasies of a sickly brain and a distempered viscera." Turning to Chapter II., we find the story itself open after this fashion:—"In one of the northern counties of our sea-girt isle, encompassed by the everlasting hills as by a girdle, there stands an ancient castle, whose ivy-mantled towers rear their hoary heads o'er ocean's broad domain, and upon whose battlements the sun and storms of ages have smiled and frowned"—and so on through three-and-twenty lines before we come to a full stop. Nothing but extreme youth can excuse this kind of writing, and, as we do not know Mr. Montgomery's age, we cannot say how far he has a right on that score to claim exemption from criticism. If under twenty, he ought, in justice to himself, to have published a certificate of the day and year of his birth on the fly-leaf of his book. Of his story, as such, we will not presume to speak. Daunted at the outset by the strange combination of Methodist tract and Minerva Press fiction which Mr. Montgomery has provided for us, we abstained from further investigation; but we suppose there are certain readers for whom the tale is suitable.

Chloroform: its Action and Administration. A Handbook. By Arthur Ernest Sansom, M.B. Lond., &c. (Churchill & Sons.)—According to Dr. John Chapman, writing in 1859, at least 1,200,000 operations had at that time been performed under chloroform. The number must, of course, by this time be very much greater, for, besides ordinary cases, chloroform is used in the army during active service, and with every year greater confidence is felt in the operation of this wonderful agent. Mr. Sansom has given much attention to the subject of anæsthetics generally, and the volume which he now publishes on the history and action of chloroform is one of very great interest—mainly, no doubt, for the medical man, but also, to a considerable extent, for all intelligent observers of the progress of science. It was no longer ago than November 4, 1847, that Dr. Simpson, of Edinburgh, first made an experiment with chloroform; yet it is already an established agent in suspending the sense of pain in surgical operations. For a few years previously, ether had been employed for the same purpose, but this soon gave way to the more effective vapour. One great object of Mr. Sansom is to disabuse the mind of the idea which many people possess that chloroform is so dangerous as to be often fatal to life. There are undoubtedly cases in which it is exceedingly dangerous. Persons liable to *delirium tremens*, and indeed all hard drinkers, are bad subjects, and a tendency to fatty degeneration of the heart renders its application very inadvisable; but generally it is quite harmless, and even disease of the heart, other than the particular form we have mentioned, is no bar to the use of this marvellous anæsthetic. In many of those cases in which death has occurred (and the proportion to the total cases is extremely small), the calamity has been owing to nervous apprehension, the patient dying before the vapour has been inhaled. These facts should be generally known, and Mr. Sansom's book is worthy of general perusal.

Lectures on the Diseases of Infancy and Childhood. By Charles West, M.D. (Longman & Co.)—It is stated by Dr. West that one child in five dies within a year after birth, and one in three before the completion of the fifth year, and that children form at least one-third of a medical man's patients. This sad fact, together with the mysterious nature of many of the complaints incidental to childhood, and the difficulty of treating patients who can do nothing towards the elucidation of their own symptoms, renders any thoughtful treatise on the subject, from the pen of one who has had many years' experience of this class of ailments, of great interest and value. Dr. West was originally enabled to study the diseases of children on a large scale at the Children's Dispensary in Lambeth, as long ago as the year 1839. He was introduced to that institution by Dr. Robert Willis, whom, in 1842, he succeeded in the office of Physician. He is now Physician to the Hospital for Sick Children in Great Ormond-street, and in connection with that admirable charity has seen a great variety of cases, and been enabled to generalise from a large body of facts. The Lectures of which his volume is composed were, however, originally delivered in 1847, and were printed in the *Medical Gazette* during the same year. In 1848 they were published as a distinct book, and since then the work has gone through several editions, this being the fifth. Each reissue has been considerably enlarged by the addition of the writer's later experiences, and the present embodies the results of 1,200 recorded cases, and of nearly 400 *post-mortem* examinations, collected from between 30,000 and 40,000 children, who, during the past six-and-twenty years, have come under the author's notice. Five editions in England, three in America, four in Germany, and various translations, are sufficient testimonies to the value of the work, without any criticism on our part.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

OUR readers may remember that, in our "Gossip" of last week, we directed attention to the sale of the original correspondence of Richard, first Duke of Buckingham, and his family, with the most eminent political characters of the past and present centuries, which was to have taken place on the following Tuesday. This sale has been stopped, interdicted by various families interested in the correspondence. It appears that, some years ago, the Duke of Buckingham sold a large parcel of letters and family documents to Messrs. Hurst & Blackett, and prepared a certain portion of them for the press, under the several titles of "Courts and Cabinets of William IV. and Victoria," "Memoirs of the Court and Regency," "Private Diary," &c. The letters in these, including the correspondence of Richard, first Marquis of Buckingham, the Grenville family, and numerous important epistles from the Duke of Buckingham, were so softened or modified in the published volumes that the members of the different families found but little fault with their publication. The sale of the originals in their entirety, however, was deemed a very different matter, and, as various clauses of the law of

copyright were transgressed by both selling the private letters and publishing them (description with extract in catalogue is deemed a sufficient publication), the solicitors of the present Duke of Wellington, Sir Watkin Williams Wynne, and other parties interested in the non-publication of the correspondence, commanded the auctioneers, Messrs. Pattick & Simpson, to desist from selling. The right of publication sold to the publishers by the lawful heir—the several works being actually edited by him—and then the sale of the originals being interdicted by families not owning but merely interested in the contents of the correspondence—forms a very nice question for those skilled in the law of copyright; but the reason of the prohibition will probably be found in the fact that the Duke suppressed many private matters when printing the letters, and the proposed auction would only publish the unabridged originals to the world. Those who have seen the original letters say they contain much that is of a most curious nature.

The last portion of the famous Surrenden Library, formed by Sir Edward Deering in the reign of James I., Charles I., and the Commonwealth period, will be brought to the hammer in a few days. The collection comprises deeds and manuscripts of extreme antiquity, mostly relating to persons and places connected with the history of this country. The Rev. Lambert Larking, one of the most accomplished antiquaries in Kent, arranged, and in great measure catalogued them, for the sale which has been ordered by the proprietor.

Irish printed literature, from the earliest period to the present time, is shortly to have an index in the shape of a "Bibliotheca Hibernica," or Manual of Irish Literature, which is being industriously compiled by Mr. John Power. This laborious volume, or set of volumes—for it is very doubtful if even the author knows to what extent he may be carried by his materials—will consist of a list of all writings by Irishmen, and persons enjoying preferment in Ireland, also of works relating to Ireland, printed in other parts, from the invention of printing to the present time. Short biographical notices of the writers, and bibliographical remarks, critical notices, and collections of the rarer articles, will be given, together with the publishing and present selling prices. A dissertation on the history of early printing in Ireland will form an introduction. The book is to be issued by subscription, and at present it is the author's intention only to print 350 copies. How is it that most persons engaged in bibliographical pursuits, or who have to do with old books, invariably try to restrict the sale of any historical work they may publish, instead of seeking that wide circulation which the majority of authors desire?

An interesting county work is announced for immediate publication:—"Dorsetshire, its Vestiges, Celtic, Roman, Saxon, and Danish, the whole carefully classified, and the finest examples of each pointed out, adapted as an Index to the Illustrated Map, on which several sites are indicated: from the personal researches and investigations of Charles Warne, F.S.A." As a guide to antiquarian pedestrians, it will be of singular value.

An antiquarian work on "Colchester in the Roman Period" is announced as in preparation by the Rev. Edward L. Cutts, the Hon. Sec. of the Essex Archaeological Society. Mr. Cutts says:—"There are few places in England which possess more of interest for the student of the Roman period than Colchester. Originally the capital of the British Kingdom of the Trinobantes, the Romans planted there the earliest, and one of the most important, of their cities; and the notices of its foundation, and of some points in its history, to be found in classical writers, give a distinctness and certainty to our knowledge of its early condition which we do not obtain in the case of any other Roman town in Britain. The modern town still possesses larger remains of the Roman occupation than exist in any other place in England, with, perhaps, the single exception of London. Its Roman walls are the most perfect in England: its castle and churches are built in large proportion of Roman materials; numerous pavements have been found and still exist; its Roman cemeteries have afforded a very large and interesting series of sepulchral remains. It has been noted for centuries for the great number of coins, bronzes, personal ornaments, and articles of civil and domestic use, which have been continually discovered here."

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT will shortly issue "Miss Carew," by Amelia B. Edwards.

Messrs. RIVINGTON & Co., of Waterloo-place, announce the following:—"The Annotated Book of Common Prayer," by Several Writers, edited by the Rev. John Henry Blunt; "Physical Science compared with the Second Beast or False Prophet of the Revelation;" and "An Ecclesiastical Year-Book, or Annual Record of Events relating to the Church."

Mr. VAN VOORST has in preparation at his careful press, "An Illustrated Key to the Natural Orders of British Wild Flowers," by John E. Sowerby.

Messrs. MACMILLAN & Co. have the following new books and new editions in preparation:—"Echoes of Many Voices from Many Lands," by A. F.; "Life's Work and God's Discipline," three Sermons by C. J. Vaughan, D.D.; "Social Aspects of the Thirty Years' War," two Lectures by Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin; "Miss Russell's Hobby," a Novel; and "The Heavenly Father: embracing Philosophical but Orthodox Views of our Idea of God—Life without God in Private and Socially—Natural Religion or Theism—Humanity, or Idealistic Atheism—God the Creator and God the Father." The translator (for the work is not native) is the Rev. Henry Downton, English Chaplain at Geneva.

Mr. STANFORD, of Charing-cross, announces "Buenos Ayres and Argentine Gleanings; with Extracts from the Diary of the Salado Exploration," by Thomas J. Hutchinson, F.R.G.S.

Messrs. CHAPMAN & HALL, like the rest of the publishers at this season of the year, have but few announcements. Amongst their new issues, however, we may mention a work on "Panama," by Charles Bedwell; "The World before the Deluge," by the same; "Cornwall and its Coasts," by Alphonse Esquiros.

Messrs. CASSELL, PETER, & GALPIN have now ready "The Boy Crusaders," by the late J. G. Edgar, author of "Boy Princes," &c., with eight illustrations by R. Dudley; "The Children's Garden, and

what they made of it," by Agnes and M. E. Catlow; Cassell's "Guide to Surrey, its History, Antiquities, and Topography," with map and illustrations; Cassell's "Guide to the Sea-side, illustrated with views of all our principal watering-places," &c.

Messrs. JACKSON, WALFORD, & HODDER announce the following works:—"The Sixth Work, or the Prisoner Visited," by Mrs. Meredith, author of "The Lacemakers;" a new story for the working classes, by Mrs. Ellis, entitled "Share and Share Alike;" and a new story for children, "Childhood in India," by the wife of an officer lately in her Majesty's service.

Messrs. MOXON will publish, at Mr. Tupper's request, the whole of the poetical works of that popular author on the 1st of July.

DENTU & Co. announce a humorous work, called "L'Anglais à Paris," by Aurèle Kervigan, the author of "L'Angleterre telle qu'elle est," &c.

Madam Anna Segalas has published a new work at the house of A. FAURE, called "Les Mystères de la Maison."

HACHETTE & Co. have just brought out a work, by M. F. A. Pouchet, under the title of "L'Univers; les Infiniment Grands et les Infiniment Petits."

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Ancient Laws of Ireland. Vol. I. Royal 8vo., 10s.
 Bell's English Poets. New edit.—Dryden. Vol. III. Feap., 1s.
 Bourne (J.), Catechism of the Steam-Engine. New edit. Feap., 9s.
 Recent Improvements in the Steam-Engine. Feap., 3s. 6d.
 Campbell (Dr. J.), Essays on Baptismal Regeneration. Feap., 2s. 6d.
 Chitty's Statutes. 3rd edit. By Weaby & Bevan. 4 vols. Royal 8vo., £12. 12s.
 Chronicles and Memorials of Richard I., edited by W. Stubbs. Vol. II. Royal 8vo., 10s.
 Church of England Magazine. Vol. LVIII. Royal 8vo., 5s. 6d.
 Collins (E.), Memoirs of the Southern States. Cr. 8vo., 2s. 6d.
 Cox (E. W.), Law and Practice of Elections. 9th edit. 12mo., 12s.
 Crory (W.), Ireland's Industrial Resources. Feap., 1s.
 Industry in Ireland. 8vo., 1s.
 Dickens (C.), Nicholas Nickleby. Cheap edit. Vol. I. Cr. 8vo., 2s.
 Documents from Simancas Relating to Reign of Elizabeth, 1558-1568. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
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 Hall (S.), Travelling Atlas of England and Wales. New edit. 8vo., 10s. 6d.
 Hunter (J.), Mercantile Exercises. 12mo., 1s. 3d.
 James (G. P. R.), Smuggler. Cheap edit. Feap., 1s.
 Jones (W. H.), Domesday for Wiltshire. 4to., £1. 11s. 6d.
 Lever (C.), One of Them. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 6s.
 Leslie (H.), The Mariner's Compass. Feap., 2s.
 Longfellow's Poetical Works. New edit. 16mo., 2s.
 Mayhew (H.), London Labour and the London Poor. Vol. II. 8vo., 4s. 6d.
 Melvin (J.), Latin Exercises. Vol. II. 2nd edit. 8vo., 3s. 6d.
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 Osborn (Captain S.), Discovery of the North-West Passage. 4th edit. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
 Oliphant (G. H.), Law of Horses. 3rd edit. 12mo., 15s.
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 Railway Library.—A Strange Story, by Sir E. B. Lytton. Feap., 2s.
 Redfern (F.), History of Uxtoxeter. Cr. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
 Ridge (B.), Ourselves, our Food, and our Physic. 6th edit. Feap., 1s. 6d.
 Roche (A.), Les Prosateurs Français. 7th edit. 12mo., 6s.
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 R. W. Jennings, Esq., Chairman of the City Steamboat Company.
 Captain Bulkeley, Director of the Great Western Railway Company.
 John William Chater, Esq., Director of the London Tavern Company.
 Henry Darvell, Esq., Windsor.

BANKERS.

Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie, & Co., Lombard-street.
 Messrs. Neville, Reid, & Co., Windsor.

BROKERS.

Messrs. Ekin Brothers, Change-alley.
 Messrs. Robins, Barber, & Dalley, 29, Threadneedle-street, E.C.

SECRETARY.—George Leslie, Esq.

Temporary Offices—29, Nicholas-lane, E.C.

PROSPECTUS.

This Company has been formed for the purpose of acquiring and uniting under one management the following hotels, all of which are now in possession of first-class businesses, and in the receipt of very considerable and remunerative incomes:

The Trafalgar Tavern, } at Greenwich.
 The Ship Tavern, }
 The Yacht Tavern, }
 The Castle Hotel, } at Windsor.
 The White Hart Hotel, }

Radley's Hotel, at Bridge-street, Blackfriars, and

The St. James's Hall and the extensive Public Rooms and Restaurant attached thereto.

These large and valuable properties present features of a character which give them a special claim to the attention of the public, inasmuch as from the moment that they are acquired by the Company, they will yield a large and highly remunerative return.

The death of Mr. Charles Hart, and the failing health of Mr. Thos. Quartermaine, the late proprietors of the Trafalgar and the Ship at Greenwich, are the sole reasons for these valuable properties being now disposed of. Both of these gentlemen, while in the occupation respectively of the Trafalgar and Ship Taverns, realized large fortunes in a few years. The Yacht Tavern has been acquired for the purpose of giving increased accommodation to the Trafalgar, which has been found to be much needed.

It is proposed to re-build the premises in Bridge-street, Blackfriars, which are wholly inadequate to the great increase of passenger-traffic that the vicinity of the terminus of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway may be expected to produce. This additional accommodation will be even more urgently required when the above-mentioned station becomes, as it very shortly will, the terminus of the Great Northern, the Great Western, the Midland, the South Western, and the Metropolitan Railways.

The business of the two Hotels at Windsor will be united, and for that purpose, new premises will be constructed upon the site of the White Hart, which stands opposite the principal entrance to Windsor Castle. The new Hotel will possess a first-class refreshment-room adjoining the terminus of the Great Western Railway. The Castle Hotel will be turned into shops, for which a large increase of income may be anticipated.

The returns of the St. James's Hall and Restaurant, which are at present under different managements (but which will be now united), are about £40,000 per annum.

The Trafalgar, at Greenwich, is held under a lease of which about 31 years are unexpired, at the annual rent of £460.

The Ship, at Greenwich, is held under a lease of which about 68 years are unexpired, at the annual rent of £500.

The Yacht, at Greenwich, is held under a lease of which 18 years are unexpired at the annual rent of £100.

The Castle and White Hart Hotels are freehold.

The St. James's Hall and Restaurant (and three houses in Regent-street, in connexion therewith) are held under leases direct from the crown, for unexpired terms varying from about 50 to 60 years, at aggregate ground-rents amounting to about £2,000 a year.

Radley's Hotel and the valuable space of ground adjoining, containing about 25,000 square feet, are held under an agreement for a lease of 99 years from Christmas, 1864, at the annual rent of £3,500; and it is believed that the ground, not now occupied by the existing Hotel, would readily produce an income nearly sufficient to cover the whole of such rent.

The price at which the whole of the above properties, including the goodwill of the late proprietors, have been acquired is the sum of £185,000.

The stock, furniture, and wines, taken over by the Company, will be paid for by valuation in the usual way.

In the undertakings of a similar nature hitherto presented to the public, the greater portion of the capital has been absorbed by the erection of new and expensive buildings, and by the purchase of the furniture, plant, &c., required for the opening of large establishments, and it has also been necessary to create fresh business; but the present project possesses the advantage that all the properties purchased are now in active and highly profitable working, and the capital to be expended in building will be laid out only to provide such enlarged accommodation as shall be found absolutely requisite for the demands of the public.

It is estimated that the dividend upon the capital required to be called up, based upon the result of the last three years' working of the different establishments, will amount to a minimum of 15 per cent. per annum, and the vendor from whom the Company purchases, in order to testify his confidence in the undertaking, has agreed to guarantee a minimum dividend of 10 per cent. during a period of five years.

There will be no promotion money paid, and the preliminary expenses will be borne by the vendor.

In consequence of inquiries which have already been made, the Directors have decided also to receive applications for allotments of one-fourth of the capital, viz., 5,000 shares fully paid up. Such shares to bear dividend from the date of payment.

Applications for shares in either of the accompanying forms may be made to the Secretary at the offices of the Company, or to the bankers, brokers, and solicitors. But no application will be entertained unless the deposit of £1 per share on the number applied for has been duly paid to the Company's bankers; in the event of no allotment being made to the applicant, the deposit will be promptly returned in full.

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR SHARES WITH £5 PAID ON ALLOTMENT.

To be retained by the Bankers.

No.

To the Directors of the London, Windsor, and Greenwich Hotels Company (Limited).

Gentlemen,—Having paid to your bankers, Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie, & Co., the sum of £5 being a deposit of £1 per share on shares in the above Company, I hereby request that you will allot me that number, and I agree to accept

such shares or any less number you may allot to me, and I agree to pay the sum of £4 per share on allotment, and I authorise you to insert my name on the register of members for the number of shares allotted to me.

Usual signature.....
 Name in full.....
 Residence.....
 Profession.....
 Date..... 1865.

OR THIS FORM OF APPLICATION FOR FULLY PAID-UP SHARES.

To be retained by the Bankers.

No.

To the Directors of the London, Windsor, and Greenwich Hotels Company (Limited).

Gentlemen,—Having paid to your bankers, Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie, & Co., the sum of £25, being a deposit of £1 per share on shares in the above Company, I hereby request that you will allot me that number of fully paid-up shares, and I agree to accept such shares or any less number you may allot to me, on the terms of the prospectus, and I agree to pay the balance of the amount of such shares on allotment, and to sign the articles of association of the Company when required, and I authorise you to insert my name on the register of members for the number of shares allotted to me.

Usual Signature.....
 Name in full.....
 Residence.....
 Profession.....
 Date..... 1865.

THE CREDIT FONCIER and MOBILIER of ENGLAND (LIMITED).

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL	£4,000,000
CAPITAL SUBSCRIBED	2,000,000
CAPITAL PAID-UP	500,000
RESERVE FUND	200,000
DIVIDEND RESERVE FUND	70,000

DIRECTORS.

The Right Hon. JAMES STUART WORTLEY, Governor.
 JAMES LEVICK, Esq., Merchant, King's Arms-yard, } Deputy Governors.
 JAMES NUGENT DANIELL, Esq., London,
 James Childs, Esq., London.
 Alexander Dunbar, Esq., Old Broad-street, London.
 Charles Ellis, Esq., Lloyd's.
 Adolphe Hakim, Esq. (Messrs. Pinto, Hakim Brothers, & Co.), London.
 The Hon. T. C. Haliburton, M.P., Chairman of the Canada Agency Association, London.
 William Harrison, Esq. (Messrs. Young, Harrison, & Bevan), Director of the Thames and Mersey Insurance Company.
 Richard Stuart Lane, Esq. (Messrs. Lane, Hankey, & Co.), London.
 Charles E. Newbon, Esq., London.
 Henry Pownall, Esq., J.P., Russell-square, London.
 Joseph Mackrill Smith, Esq. (Messrs. Mackrill Smith & Co.), Old Broad-street, London.
 Edward Warner, Esq., M.P., London.
 John Westmorland, Esq. (Director of the Royal Insurance Company), London.
 Albert Grant, Esq., F.S.A., M.R.I., Managing Director.

BANKERS.

The Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited).
 Messrs. Smith, Payne, & Smiths.
 The National Bank, London, Dublin, and its branches in Ireland.
 The Alliance Bank (Limited), London, Liverpool, and Manchester.

SOLICITORS.

Messrs. Newbon, Evans, & Co., Nicholas-lane, E.C.

BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

This Company negotiates loans for Colonial and Foreign Governments. Co-operates in the financial arrangements of British and other Railways. Makes advances to Corporations, Town Councils, and other public bodies. Negotiates loans for Public Works. Assists in the introduction of Industrial and Commercial undertakings. Makes advances upon approved Stocks, Shares, Bonds, &c. Makes temporary loans upon eligible Freehold and Leasehold Securities.

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

London, 17 and 18, Cornhill, June 15th, 1865.

DEBENTURES ISSUED BY

THE CREDIT FONCIER and MOBILIER of ENGLAND (LIMITED).

ISSUE OF £500,000 DEBENTURES WITH INTEREST PAYABLE QUARTERLY.

The Directors have decided to issue Debenture Bonds of the Company for the amounts and bearing interest as under, viz.:

In sums of £10, £20, £50, £100, £250, £500, and £1,000, with coupons attached.	
INTEREST.	
For three years	6 per cent. per annum.
For five years	6½ " " "
For seven years	7 " " "

Interest payable quarterly, viz., on the 30th March, 30th June, 30th September, and 30th December, in each year, at the Company's Bankers.

The distinctive feature in the debentures issued by this Company is their perfect security; the amount of the capital subscribed, paid-up, and uncalled, and the general invested assets of the Company, as well as the large reserve fund, affording the most ample security to the investor.

These debentures are issued payable to bearer, and can therefore pass by simple delivery from hand to hand, without endorsement, and are free from any further stamp duty. They are also issued—to meet the requirements of Trustees and others—transferable by deed only, to be duly registered in the Company's books in the names of the investors or their assigns.

Forms of application can be obtained of the Secretary, to whom all communications must be addressed.—By order of the Court,

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

London, 17 and 18, Cornhill, June 15, 1865.

DEPOSITS RECEIVED BY

THE CREDIT FONCIER and MOBILIER of ENGLAND (LIMITED).

RATES FOR MONEY ON DEPOSIT.

This Company receives Money on Deposit in Sums of £10 and upwards, at the undermentioned rates, from this day until further notice, viz.:

At fourteen days' notice	3 per cent. per annum.
At one month's notice	3½ per cent. per annum.

FOR FIXED PERIODS OF—

Not less than 3 months and up to 6 months	4 per cent. per annum.
Beyond 6 months and up to 9 months	4½ per cent. per annum.
Beyond 9 months and up to 12 months	5 per cent. per annum.
Beyond 12 months and up to 24 months	5½ per cent. per annum.

Forms of Application can be obtained of the Secretary, to whom all communications must be addressed.

By order of the Court,

ALFRED LOWE, Secretary.

17 and 18, Cornhill, London, June 15th, 1865.

BARNED'S BANKING COMPANY (Limited).

Incorporated under the Companies Act, 1862.

Capital £2,000,000 in 40,000 Shares of £50 each.
(With power to increase.)

Of which it is not intended to call up more than £20 per Share.

Deposit on Application £1 per Share, £4 per Share on Allotment, £5 per Share on 1st September, and the remainder in instalments of not more than £5 each at intervals of not less than three months, of which ample notice will be given.

DIRECTORS.

CHARLES MOZLEY, Esq., Chairman.
 J. A. Bencke, Esq. (Messrs. J. A. Bencke & Co.), Liverpool.
 George Collie, Esq. (Messrs. G. Collie & Co.), Liverpool.
 S. Price Edwards, Esq., Liverpool.
 John Enthoven, Esq. (Messrs. H. J. Enthoven & Sons), Liverpool.
 Francis Martin, Esq. (Messrs. Martin, Robertson, & Co., Gracechurch-street, London), Director of the Thames and Mersey Insurance Company.
 Fredk. B. Mozley, Esq., Liverpool.
 Lewin B. Mozley, Esq., Liverpool.
 Joseph Robinson, Esq., Deputy Chairman Ebbw Vale Company, Laurence Pountney-hill, London.

(With power to add to their number.)

BANKERS.

Messrs. Prescott, Grote, Cave, & Co., London.
 Messrs. I. Barned & Co., Liverpool.

BROKERS.

Messrs. Brunton & Son, 32, Cornhill, London.
 Messrs. Helbert, Wagg, & Co., Shorter's-court, Throgmorton-street.
 Messrs. Thomas Tinley & Sons, Liverpool.

SOLICITORS.

Messrs. Maynard, Son, & Co., Coleman-street, London.
 Messrs. Bateson, Robinson, and Morris, Liverpool.
 AUDITORS.—Messrs. Harwood Banner and Son, Liverpool.

SECRETARY (pro tem.).—R. H. Ashton, Esq.

Offices in Liverpool—The Bank, Lord-street.

Temporary Offices in London—City Bank Chambers, 20, Threadneedle-street, E.C.

This Company is formed for the purpose of purchasing the business of the old-established and well-known private Bank of Messrs. I. Barned & Co., in Liverpool, and organising it on the broader basis of a Joint-Stock Company, under the Limited Liability Act.

The Bank, which was founded in 1809, has done a large and continually increasing business, and there is no doubt that in its new and extended form still more satisfactory results will be realised.

The Directors have received most encouraging promises of support both in Liverpool and London, but in making the allotment of shares preference will be given to the present customers of the Bank.

The purchase-money for the business has been fixed at £160,000, payable by instalments spread over two years, as stipulated in the agreement, and this sum, on comparing it with the profits shown by Messrs. I. Barned & Co. to have been realised, and their guarantee of the assets taken over, cannot be considered other than a moderate payment for a lucrative business placed at once in the hands of the Shareholders.

The Bank will take over the business of Messrs. I. Barned & Co., as from the 1st July, 1865, and Messrs. I. Barned & Co. will guarantee the payment of all debit balances (including Bills and Credit running) standing in their books on that day.

The business will have the advantage of the active supervision of the present partners in the Bank, who have agreed to act as Directors for five years, and will retain a large interest in the Company.

Messrs. I. Barned & Co. are willing to sell at a valuation the present Bank premises, and any of their adjoining property, if the Directors wish to secure it, and, if required, to leave the purchase-money on mortgage for ten years at 4½ per cent.

The remuneration of the ordinary Directors is to be fixed by the shareholders at their annual meetings, but power is taken in the Articles of Association to appoint one or more of their number as Managing Directors, whose extra remuneration will be determined by the Board.

Copies of the Company's Memorandum and Articles of Association, and of the Agreement for the Transfer of Messrs. I. Barned & Co.'s business, can be seen at the Offices of the Solicitors of the Company.

Applications for shares must be accompanied by a payment of the deposit of £1 per share. In the event of no allotment being made the deposit will be returned in full. Should a less number of shares be allotted than are applied for, the deposit will, so far as required, be applied towards the payment due on allotment.

Applications for shares will be received at the Bankers, Brokers, Solicitors, Offices of the Company, and at the following places:—

ENGLAND.

Manchester—Messrs. Cunliffe, Brooks, & Co.
 Leeds—The Yorkshire Banking Company.
 Birmingham—The Birmingham Banking Company.
 Bristol—Messrs. Baillie, Cave, Baillie, & Co.

SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh
 Glasgow
 Dundee
 Aberdeen
 Dumfries
 } The National Bank of Scotland.

IRELAND.

Dublin
 Londonderry
 Cork
 Limerick
 Belfast
 } The Provincial Bank of Ireland.
 } The Belfast Banking Company.
 } The Ulster Banking Company.

Where prospectuses and forms may be obtained.

BARNED'S BANKING COMPANY (Limited).

To the Directors of Barned's Banking Company (Limited).

Gentlemen,—Having paid £ to your Bankers, I request that you will allot me Shares in Barned's Banking Company (Limited), and I hereby agree to accept such Shares, or any less number that may be allotted to me, and to pay the Calls thereon, subject to the provisions of "The Companies Act, 1862," and the Articles of Association.

Name in full
 Address
 Occupation, if any
 Usual signature
 Date

The above Form, when filled up, is to be left with the Bankers on payment of the Deposit.

THE DALBEATTIE and KIRKCONNELL GRANITE COMPANY (Limited).

(THAMES EMBANKMENT WORKS.)

Incorporated under The Companies Act, 1863.

Capital, £120,000, in 12,000 Shares of £10 each, of which it is not expected that more than £6 will be called up.

Deposit £1 per Share on Application, and £2 on Allotment.

Calls not to exceed £2 per Share, and at intervals of not less than three months.

DIRECTORS.

Sir JOHN DALRYMPLE HAY, Bart., M.P., F.R.S., Chairman.
 Colonel Henry Creed, Director of the Imperial Gas Company, and lately Director of the London and North-Western Railway Company.
 George Hay Donaldson, Esq., Director of the Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited).
 George Furness, Esq., Contractor for the First Section of the Thames Embankment.
 Colonel James Holland, Deputy Chairman of the London and South African Bank (Limited).

(With power to add to their number.)

Hugh Shearer, Esq., Lessee of the Quarries, will join the direction on the transfer of his interests to the Company.

BANKERS.

England.—Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited), Nicholas-lane, E.C.; Messrs. Hallett, Ommanney, & Co., 14, Great George-street, Westminster, S.W.
 Scotland.—The National Bank of Scotland and its Branches.
 Ireland.—The National Bank and its Branches.

SOLICITORS.—Messrs. Norris & Sons, 2, Bedford-row, W.C.; Sir William Broun, Bart., Dumfries, N.B.

BROKERS.

London.—Messrs. Walker & Lutteden, 25, Austin-friars, E.C.
 Liverpool.—Messrs. G. & J. Irvine, 7, India Buildings.
 Glasgow.—Messrs. L. & R. H. Robertson, 58, St. Vincent-street.
 Dublin.—Edward Fox, Esq., 51, Dame-street.

SECRETARY (pro tem.).—J. H. Doyle, Esq.

Temporary Offices—82, Old Broad-street, E.C.

This Company is formed to extend the workings of the Dalbeattie and Kirkconnell Granite Quarries, near the rivers Urr and Nith, Kirkcudbright, in order to supply the great and increasing demand for this stone, consequent upon the Metropolitan Board of Works having selected it for the construction of the Thames Embankment.

The vendor holds advantageous contracts to the amount of more than £100,000, for supplying material to that important national undertaking, as well as many orders for architectural, memorial, and ornamental works, and for street paving and other economical purposes. With these contracts, and the rapidly-expanding trade (met by the constantly-increasing powers to execute extensive orders), there is full and immediately profitable employment for the capital required.

The Directors have taken power to create a sinking fund by an annual investment, with the object of securing to the shareholders, as far as may be, the value of their paid-up capital at the expiration of the thirty-one years' leases of the quarries, and the vendor has agreed that for a period of two years the 2,500 shares which are to be allotted to him in part payment of the purchase-money shall receive no dividend unless the dividends paid to the ordinary shareholders amount to 10 per cent. per annum.

There are no promoters' fees, and the preliminary expenses will be restricted to the moderate outlay absolutely necessary for the formation of the Company.

Detailed Prospectuses and Forms of application for shares to be had at the Bankers', Brokers', Solicitors', and at 82, Old Broad-street.

DALBEATTIE & KIRKCONNELL GRANITE COMPANY (Limited).—(THAMES EMBANKMENT WORKS.)

Copies of the reports of eminent engineers on the value of the quarries, including those of Mr. Bazalgette, engineer to the Metropolitan Board of Works; Professor Tennant; Mr. Robert Rawlinson, Government engineer; Mr. George F. Lyster, engineer to the Mersey Dock Estate; Mr. Walter Eddy, mining engineer, the Frou, Llangollen; Mr. Sutcliffe, foreman of the Mersey Dock Commissioners' Granite Quarries; and Mr. John Barrat, mineral surveyor, may be obtained of the Bankers', Brokers', Solicitors', and at 82, Old Broad-street.

DALBEATTIE & KIRKCONNELL GRANITE COMPANY (Limited).—(THAMES EMBANKMENT WORKS.)

Independently of the fact, as an evidence of its high commercial value, that this granite has been selected for the Thames Embankment, the stone has been already used in the execution of the following among other large and important undertakings:—The Liverpool Docks; Graving Docks, Birkenhead; Harbour at Trinidad; Maryport Docks, Newport Docks, Swansea Docks, Sillioth Docks, Working-ton Docks; Bank of England Branch, Liverpool; New Municipal Offices, Liverpool; Brown's Buildings, Liverpool.

DEBENTURES AND MORTGAGES.**AUSTRALIAN MORTGAGE, LAND, and FINANCE COMPANY (Limited), 72, CORNHILL, E.C., LONDON.**

CAPITAL, One Million Sterling.

DIRECTORS.

Sir Charles Nicholson, Bart.
 David Aitchison, Esq.
 John Ailsutt, Esq.
 James Caird, Esq., M.P.
 Richard Gibbs, Esq.
 John Gillespie, Esq.
 Robert Hook, Esq.
 Henry Jordan, Esq.
 R. Stuart Lane, Esq.
 T. M. Mackay, Esq.
 W. A. Rose, Esq., M.P.
 Sir Henry Drummond Wolf, K.C.M.G.
 Sir Henry E. Fox Young, C.B.

BANKERS IN LONDON—Messrs. Prescott, Grote, & Co.; Messrs. Herries, Farquhar, & Co.

SOLICITORS—Messrs. Baxter, Rose, Norton, & Co.

DEBENTURES.

Debentures issued, bearing £6 per cent. interest, for terms of from three to seven years. These securities constitute a first charge on the Company's capital and assets, including its mortgages and other liens, on approved properties in the Australian colonies.

AGENCY (Mortgages, &c.)

Monies received for investment by the Company, as agents, on mortgage in Australia, to produce to the investor £7 per cent. interest. General agency business in relation to the Australian colonies undertaken, whether financial or otherwise.

HENRY N. LONG, Secretary.

DEPOSITS.**AUSTRALIAN MORTGAGE, LAND, and FINANCE COMPANY (Limited), 72, CORNHILL, E.C., LONDON.**

CAPITAL, One Million Sterling.

Sums of £20 and upwards received on deposit for periods of not less than a year at £6 per cent. Monies of this nature accumulated with the Company can be applied to a debenture on reaching £100 if desired.

HENRY N. LONG, Secretary.

ANNUITIES.**AUSTRALIAN MORTGAGE, LAND, and FINANCE COMPANY (Limited), 72, CORNHILL, E.C., LONDON.**

CAPITAL, One Million Sterling.

CONSULTING ACTUARY—Charles Jellicoe, Esq., President of the Institute of Actuaries.

Annuities granted on terms highly favourable to purchasers, the interest procurable on the highest class of securities in the colonies, enabling the Company to assume in its calculations a higher rate than prevails in England.

HENRY N. LONG, Secretary.

GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY.—SEASIDE ARRANGEMENTS.

LONDON TO YARMOUTH, LOWESTOFT, AND HUNSTANTON.

Fares (each person).	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.
*Monthly Family Tickets.....	32s. 0d. ...	25s. 0d. ...	—
Weekly Tickets.....	25s. 0d. ...	20s. 0d. ...	15s. 0d.

LONDON TO ALDBOROUGH.

*Monthly Family Tickets.....	26s. 0d. ...	21s. 0d. ...	—
Weekly Tickets.....	25s. 0d. ...	20s. 0d. ...	15s. 0d.

LONDON TO HARWICH.

*Monthly Family Tickets.....	20s. 0d. ...	16s. 0d. ...	—
Weekly Tickets.....	17s. 6d. ...	12s. 6d. ...	8s. 6d.

Available by any train of corresponding class for Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Aldborough, and Harwich, via Colchester and Woodbridge only; and to Hunstanton via Cambridge.

* The Monthly Family Tickets are issued to family parties of not less than three persons. The time may be extended on the payment of a small per-centage at the seaside stations.

Extra tickets may also during the month be obtained at the seaside stations, to enable one member of each family party to travel to London and back at half the monthly family ticket fares.

A Special Fast Train, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd class, leaves London for Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Aldborough, and Harwich, at 10 a.m.; and a Return Fast Train leaves Yarmouth at 9.50 a.m., and Lowestoft at 9.55 a.m., performing the journey each way in about 3½ hours.

For further information, address or apply to the Superintendent, Superintendent's Office, Bishopsgate Station, London.

£4. 10s. PER CENT. DEBENTURE STOCK.

THE GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY COMPANY

are now issuing this Stock. Applications to be made to

J. B. OWEN, Secretary.

Bishopsgate Terminus, June 27th, 1865.

ATLANTIC AND GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY.

NOTICE TO BONDHOLDERS.

In conformity with the terms on which the SECOND MORTGAGE BONDS of the PENNSYLVANIA and NEW YORK SECTIONS of this Railway were issued to the public, the FIRST ANNUAL DRAWING of 4 per cent. of the gross amount of these Bonds will take place at the office of Messrs. E. F. Satterthwaite & Co., 38, Throgmorton-street, in the presence of Mr. Grain, Public Notary, on THURSDAY, 6th July, at one o'clock precisely.

The authorized issue is as under, viz.:—

PENNSYLVANIA DIVISION.

950 Bonds of 1,000 dols. each.....	\$950,000	Coupons due January and July.
500 „ of 100 „	50,000	
	\$1,000,000	

NEW YORK DIVISION.

400 Bonds of 1,000 dols. each.....	\$400,000	Coupons due April and October.
600 „ of 500 „	300,000	
1000 „ of 100 „	100,000	
	\$800,000	

Four per cent. of each denomination will be drawn on the above day, and the Bonds so drawn that have been issued in London will be paid off at the rate of £225 for every 1,000 dollar Bond, £112. 10s. for every 500 dollar Bond, and £22. 10s. for every 100 dollar Bond, on presentation at the Company's Offices, 5, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street, Westminster; the Bonds of the New York section on the 1st October, 1865; and of the Pennsylvania section on 1st January, 1866, in addition to the Coupon due on those days, after which all interest will cease.

On payment, the drawn Bonds will be cancelled in the presence of a public notary.

Offices: 5, Westminster-chambers, Victoria-street,
Westminster, June 20, 1865.

SIX PER CENT. DEBENTURES.

THE SUBMARINE TELEGRAPH COMPANY,

INCORPORATED BY ROYAL CHARTER.

DIRECTORS.

SIR JAMES CARMICHAEL, BART., Chairman.

Lord de Mauley.	Henry Moor, Esq., M.P.
Francis Edwards, Esq.	C. Sanderson, Esq.
Samuel Gurney, Esq., M.P.	G. Scamell, Esq.
Capt. J. Grant, late R.A.	Right Hon. James Stuart Wortley.

The Directors are prepared to receive applications for the Debentures of this Company, to replace those falling due. The amount of the Debentures is restricted to one-third of the Capital; the interest payable on this sum Half-yearly, is £5,280 per annum, and forms the first charge on the Revenue of the Company, the gross amount of which is now £50,000 per annum. The Debentures are issued for five years, in sums of £50 and upwards, and are secured by the whole of the property, effects, and revenues of the Company, which include a Reserve Fund equal to one-sixth of the Debenture debt; by a special Resolution, one-tenth of the Revenue is added Half-yearly to the Reserve Fund. The Company has seven cables in connection with the Continent, the exclusive Concessions for carrying Telegraph messages until 1889, and a Revenue which has increased from £30,000 to £50,000 per annum, since the original Debentures were issued in 1861.

By order, S. M. CLARE, Secretary.

58, Threadneedle-street, London, E.C.

SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY,

48, ST. JAMES'S STREET, and 27, CANNON STREET, LONDON.

TRUSTEES.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot
Sir Claude Scott, Bart. | Henry Pownall, Esq.

The following figures will show an increase quite unprecedented in the history of the Company:—

The amount assured in 1862 was	£151,065
Ditto „ in 1863 „	194,152
Ditto „ in 1864 „	266,450

To ample security the Office adds the advantage of moderate rates and liberal management.

The bonuses declared have been unusually large, and amount in some cases to four-fifths of the premiums paid.

HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.

£100 for TWOPENCE.—EXCURSIONISTS may secure this sum for their Families in CASE of DEATH, or £1 Weekly for themselves if injured by RAILWAY ACCIDENT, by taking an Insurance Ticket of the

RAILWAY PASSENGERS' ASSURANCE COMPANY.

SINGLE and DOUBLE Journey INSURANCE TICKETS to the DUBLIN EXHIBITION or elsewhere may also be obtained at all the RAILWAY STATIONS.

N.B.—Take your INSURANCE TICKET when you pay your Fare.

ACCIDENTS TO LIFE OR LIMB,

In the FIELD, the STREETS, or at HOME,

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